



OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education

NETHERLANDS

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ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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This report is based on a study visit to the Netherlands in April-
1996, and on background documents prepared to support the
visit. As a result, the report reflects the situation up to that point.

Glossary

Advisory Council for Science and Technology

Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis

European Foundation for Quality Management

The HAVO (*Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs*, literally, "higher general continuing education") has five grades and is attended from age twelve to seventeen. A HAVO diploma provides access to the HBO level of tertiary education.

Hoger Beroeps Onderwijs, a higher professional education

HBO Council, the central body representing HBO institutions

Tertiary institutions providing higher professional education

Higher Education and Research Plan (*Hoger Onderwijs en Onderzoek Plan*)

Netherlands Royal Academy of Sciences (*Koninklijke Nederlandse Akademie van Wetenschappen*)

Ministry of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality

MBO (*Middelbaar Beroeps Onderwijs*, literally, "middle-level vocational education") is oriented towards vocational training. Many pupils with a VMBO-diploma attend MBO. MBO lasts three to four years. After MBO, pupils can enroll in HBO or enter the job market.

The Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research

Small and medium-sized employers

The VMBO (*Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs*, literally, "preparatory middle-level vocational education") education lasts four years, typically from age twelve to sixteen. It combines vocational training with theoretical education in languages, mathematics, history, arts, and sciences. Sixty percent of students nationally are enrolled in VMBO. VMBO itself has four different levels, in each a different mix of practical vocational training and theoretical education is combined.

Dutch employer association for large enterprises

Association of Netherlands Research Universities

VWO (*Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs*, literally, "preparatory scientific education"). A six year course of theoretical/academic education, typically from age 12 to 18. A VWO diploma provides access to WO training, although certain profiles (combinations of subjects) are required for admittance to study certain subjects.

Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs, (literally "scientific education") theoretical/academic education provided at a research university

1. Introduction

Objectives of the OECD Review

This Country Note on the Netherlands forms part of the OECD Education Review of Tertiary Education. This is a collaborative project to assist countries in the design and implementation of tertiary education policies that contribute to the realisation of their social and economic objectives.

The tertiary education systems of many OECD countries have experienced rapid growth over the last decade, and are experiencing new challenges as the result of a globalising economy and labour market. In this context, the OECD Education Committee agreed, in late 2003, to carry out a thematic review of tertiary education. The principal objective of the review is to assist countries in understanding how the organisation, management and delivery of tertiary education can help them to achieve economic and social objectives. The principal focus of the review is on tertiary education policies and systems, rather than upon the detailed management and operation of institutions.

The project's purposes, methodology and guidelines are detailed in (OECD, 2004a).¹ The purposes of the review are:

- To synthesise research-based evidence on the impact of tertiary education policies and disseminate this knowledge among participating countries;

- To identify innovative and successful policy initiatives and practices;

- To facilitate exchanges of lessons and experiences among countries;

review encompasses the full range of tertiary programmes and institutions. International statistical conventions define tertiary education in terms of programme levels: those programmes at ISCED² levels 5B, 5A and 6 are treated as tertiary education, and programmes below ISCED level 5B are not. In some countries the term higher education is used more commonly than tertiary education, at times to refer to all programmes at levels 5B, 5A and 6, and at times to refer only to those programmes at levels 5A and 6. An additional complication is presented by the practice, in some countries, of referring to higher education or tertiary education in terms of the institution, rather than the programme. For example, it is common to use higher education to refer to programmes offered by universities, and tertiary education to refer to programmes offered by institutions that extend beyond universities. The OECD thematic review follows standard international conventions in using tertiary education to refer to all programmes at ISCED levels 5B, 5A and 6, regardless of the institutions in which they are offered.

The project involves two complementary approaches: an *Analytical Review strand*; and a *Country Review strand*. The Analytical Review strand involves several means – country background reports, literature reviews, data analysis and commissioned papers – to analyse the factors that shape the structure of tertiary education systems, and possible policy responses. All of the countries involved in the Review are taking part in this strand. In total, 13 of the tertiary education systems have chosen to participate in a Country Review, which involves external review teams analysing tertiary education policies in those countries.

The Netherlands was one of the countries that opted to participate in the Country Reviews and hosted a review visit in April-May 2006. The review team comprised an OECD Secretariat member, and academics and policy makers from Australia, the United States, Finland, and the United Kingdom. The team is listed in Appendix 1.

Participation of the Netherlands

The Netherlands' participation in the OECD Review was co-ordinated by Lies Leegwater of the Netherlands Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science (OCW). Jos de Jonge and Jurriaan Berger of EIM prepared the Country Background Report (CBR) (OCW, 2006a) for the OECD Review. The findings are provided in Appendix 2).

The review team is grateful to the authors of the CBR, and to all those who assisted them for providing an informative and policy-oriented document. The CBR covered themes such as the background and content of education reforms; the structure of the tertiary education system; the role of tertiary education in regional development, the research effort of the Netherlands; the shaping of labour markets; and the challenges faced in financing, governing, achieving equity in and assuring the quality of the tertiary education system.

The Netherlands CBR forms a valuable input to the overall OECD review, and the review team found it to be very useful in relation to its work. The analysis and points raised in the CBR are cited frequently in this Country Note.³ In this sense, the documents complement each other and, for a comprehensive view of tertiary education policy in the Netherlands, should be read in conjunction.

The review visit took place from April 24–May 2 2006. An itinerary is provided in Appendix 3. The review team held discussions with educational institutions and relevant agencies and visited institutions of tertiary education in the country. Discussions were held with representatives of Ministries such as Education and Finance; tertiary education institutions; student organisations; representatives of academic staff; the business and industry sectors; and officials responsible for quality assurance. This allowed the review team to obtain the views of key stakeholders in the system concerning the strengths, weaknesses, and policy priorities regarding tertiary education in the Netherlands.

This Country Note draws together the review team's observations and findings and the background materials. The present report on the Netherlands will be an input to the final OECD report on the overall project. The review team trusts that this Country Note will also contribute to discussions within the Netherlands, and inform the international education community about tertiary education in the Netherlands that may hold lessons for their own countries.

The review team wishes to record its grateful appreciation to the many individuals who gave time from their busy schedules to assist in its work. The review team is grateful also for the informative and frank meetings that were held during the visit, and the helpful documentation provided by our hosts.

s Country Note is the responsibility of the review team. While the benefited greatly from the Netherlands CBR and other documents, any misinterpretations in this Country Note are its responsibility.

e of the Country Note

remainder of the report is organised into ten chapters that focus on es within the scope of the review. Chapter Two provides a brief and background of tertiary education in the Netherlands, Three reviews the governance of the tertiary system and its ons. Chapters Four and Five examine the financing of the tertiary and questions of equity, respectively. Chapter Six considers the between tertiary education and labour markets in the Netherlands. Seven examines the role of tertiary education in research and on, while Chapter Eight examines policies and practices with to assuring and improving the quality of tertiary education. Issues of onalisation of tertiary education are examined in Chapter Nine. Ten offers a brief conclusion. This is followed by a set of ces.

Context and Background of Tertiary Education Policy in the Netherlands

Netherlands is a nation of 16.3 million people (2005). It has a small area at 41 530 square kilometres, but has long been a major trading and is relatively wealthy: in 2005 per capita Gross National Income was USD 32 480 in Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) terms, which was highest in the world when very small nations are excluded. In 2005 GDP of the Netherlands was USD 537.7 billion in PPP terms, 22nd in the world and the sixth largest national product in Europe. In 2004 most of GDP was in services (72.0% of GDP) followed by manufacturing at 24.4% and agriculture at just 2.4%. High technology exports constituted 14.4% of manufacturing exports (World Bank Data and Statistics, 2006).

The nation is strongly networked within the global communications infrastructure, providing global advantages for the nation in both business and education. In 2004 there were 524 Dutch Internet users per 1 000 people compared to an average of 480 in the World Bank's high-income countries. There were 190 broadband subscribers in the Netherlands compared to an average 126 in the high-income countries, and mobile phone subscribers per 1000 people (World Bank, ICT data).

As is true elsewhere in Europe, the Netherlands has an ageing population, and the main source of demographic growth and the driver of educational expansion is immigration. The number of inhabitants of 'non-Western' origin, principally from Northern Africa and the Middle East, is 14.4% overall but exceeds 30% in the four largest cities of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht. In these cities 51% of the population are 'non-Western' (Background Report, p. 6). This group must be a major concern in any policy consideration concerning tertiary education and issues in relation to social and cultural integration and the most effective use of human capital.

the levels prevailing in Germany, France and the UK. The proportion of tertiary education in the 25-34 year old age group in the Netherlands (34%) is above the OECD average (31%). On this indicator the comparative advantage is stronger in the older age groups. In the 45-54 year old group the Netherlands proportion is 29% compared to an OECD average of 23%, a difference of six percentage points; in the 25-34 year old group the Netherlands proportion of 34% is only three percentage points above the OECD average of 31%. The fact that the participation gap between the Netherlands and the OECD average is moving towards closure in the older age groups suggests that the bulk of OECD nations are improving tertiary education more quickly than is the Netherlands. While the Netherlands continues to have a substantially larger share of young adults 25-34 with a tertiary qualification than the OECD average (27% vs. 19%), it has 10% of its 25-34 year old age cohort with a short tertiary qualification, compared to 11 for the average OECD member country. The introduction of a two-year associate degree qualification is expected to narrow or close this difference (OECD, 2006a, pp. 37-39).

Workforce participation by women is lower than in some other OECD countries at 55% of those aged 15-64 years, and is concentrated in part-time work. Part-time work is increasing among men. However women continue to make advances in the professions and in 2002 held 25% of all positions in management and scientific management compared to 14% in 1995 (Background paper 7). The balance between women and men in higher education is not equal. As in most OECD nations the rate of entry of young women into tertiary degrees considerably outstrips that of young men, while men make up the larger group in doctoral programmes at a ratio of three to two.

In the Netherlands 86.1% of 15-19 year olds are enrolled in education, which is above the OECD average of 80.5% but on par with Western Europe. Participation of the 20-29 year age group in the Netherlands is just above the OECD average (24.7%). After 30 years age tertiary education rates fall well below the OECD average, however. Just 2.9% of 30 year olds are enrolled in education as defined by OECD compared to 15.6% for the OECD as a whole, 15.6% in the UK and 13.5% in Sweden (OECD, 2006a, p. 266). This suggests that in the Netherlands there is a relatively weak commitment to lifelong learning and professional upgrading through continuing education programmes that have significant labour market cachet. This may be embedded in social culture, in that older people do not see tertiary education as an option, but if so the incentive

in the Netherlands higher education is seen as the preserve of the

higher education is based on a three-cycle degree system, consisting of Bachelor, Masters and PhD levels, in conformity with the Bologna model. The Netherlands has moved earlier and more comprehensively than most other nations in adopting this template though the transition is not complete (Witte, 2006).

The two principal sectors of tertiary education are the research-intensive universities (the WOs) and the technical or ‘professional’ institutions, the Hogescholen (the HBOs). There are 14 research-intensive universities including the Open University; eight academic medical centres and several publicly funded research institutes affiliated with the universities. There are 25 government funded HBOs. In recent years the HBO sector has become more concentrated via mergers and some of its institutions now enrol more than 10 000 students. The WOs and HBOs are separated on the basis of a division of labour (the ‘binary system’) in which the great majority of research functions and capacities are concentrated in the WOs. In contrast to academic staff at the research-intensive universities, few HBO staff hold doctoral degrees. On the whole HBO graduates are more specifically trained for local and to occupationally tailored employment. There is a greater emphasis on generalist preparation in WOs. Organisationally, individual academic units within the WOs on the whole enjoy greater autonomy than their HBO counterparts. There are mergers and cooperation across the binary line but it is the subject of continuing policy tensions, particularly in relation to research and the funding of Masters programmes, discussed in Chapter Three.

The total number of students in higher education in the Netherlands in 2005 was 546 400. Of these 199 300 students were enrolled in the research-intensive universities (the WOs) and 347, 100 in the HBOs (OCW, 2006b, p. 1 and 97).

Beyond the binary system are designated (*aangewezen*) institutions. The operating costs of these institutions are not directly subsidised by the state; however, students eligible for publicly funded student grants and loans may apply to meet their study costs in accredited programmes at these institutions. There are nine institutes of this type at WO level and 62 at HBO level. Typically quite small, enrolling a total of 60-70 000 students (OCW, 2006b, p. 12). These include, for example, the Netherlands Institute of

g teaching duties. A small number of PhD students study on the scholarships (Background Report, p. 16). Students graduate from research programmes at an average age of 25 years, placing them among the youngest in the OECD (OECD, 2005a, p. 422).

At international standards Dutch students are very well prepared for tertiary education. The nation is in the top group for mean levels of achievement in the OECD PISA tests of mathematics and literacy among 15-year-olds (*e.g.* for mathematics OECD, 2006a, p. 72). Overall performance is so high that even lower achieving school students in the Netherlands do quite well compared to students from other nations. Once students reach higher education they have a higher than OECD average completion rate, 76% compared to 71% (OECD, 2006a, pp. 99 and 100). This is a highly selected and culturally homogenous group by comparison with more open systems. Many potential degree students below the selection group are weeded out at earlier stages.

Not all secondary students are not destined for higher education. During secondary school, beginning at 12 years, students are streamed into three academically ordered groups on the basis of academic potential: the VWO, which is constituting the pathway to research intensive universities (the HBOs); the HAVO which provides students for HBO or MBO vocational training at tertiary stage; and the VMBO which prepares students solely for MBO tertiary training. In total about 60% of students enrolled in upper secondary education are in vocational education; and at the level of higher education about two thirds of all students are enrolled in the HBOs rather than the research-intensive universities. Both the proportion of secondary students in vocational education, and the proportion of tertiary students in non-doctoral universities (HBOs) rather than the research intensive universities which enjoy the highest per capita funding and social status are much higher than the OECD averages. This includes other nations such as Finland and Germany with binary systems (for more discussion see Section Five-Six).

Students selected for the VWO stream tend to have very favourable prospects. All who qualify for entrance to the research-intensive universities are accepted; most are able to enter into their first choice programme. When applications exceed the planned number of places the universities have the option of either expanding the enrolment beyond the planned level, or

less, once designated for the academic stream in secondary school, all those so selected remain in it; and in that stream they are relatively supported. The Netherlands spends a relatively high USD 70 932 per student enrolled in the OECD category of tertiary type A and research programmes, over the duration of the course of study. The Netherlands combines a middling level of overall spending and concentration with the concentration of tertiary enrolments at degree level and relatively generous support for the top group of students in the research intensive universities who are better resourced than other countries (OECD, 2006a). The student loans system is also very generous to those eligible for it. However the situation is different in the VMBO stream below VWO level while at secondary school, whether in VMBO or HAVO streams. Arguably, the three-track structure of secondary schooling inhibits the capacity of the Netherlands to lift total tertiary enrolment in the research-intensive universities and HBOs, especially for students from immigrant communities. This became a primary concern of the team during the review (see Chapter Five).

With the exception of the top echelon of academic research, higher education institutions are not exposed to a high level of open competition; if they were it is unclear how they would respond. The HBO focus on employment destinations of graduates raises questions about the academic and international mobility of those graduates. HBO instructors are academically trained but are less so than those in the higher professional education in Germany and Finland.

The Ministry of OCW (Education, Culture and Science) administers government higher education programmes. Other departments also have a role, particularly in relation to research and innovation, including the Ministry of Economic Affairs. There are on-going issues of coordination and cooperation within and between the ministries involved. In 2003 the Netherlands spent just 5.0% of GDP on education compared to the OECD average of 5.9%. Both public funding of education in the Netherlands (4.6% compared to the OECD average of 5.2%) and private funding (0.4% compared to 0.7%) fell below the OECD mean. At tertiary level the comparative picture is somewhat stronger. Total financing of tertiary education at 1.3% of GDP was only just below the OECD average of 1.4%.

OECD average of 46% and an EU-19 average of 47% (OECD, 2006a, 2005, 208-209).

Netherlands is a modest national investor in R&D given its total economic resources. The nation spent 1.80% of GDP on R&D in 2002 compared to an OECD average of 2.26%. Investment in R&D in the research intensive universities is stronger in comparative terms than is in the business R&D. Company expenditure on R&D of 0.90% of GDP in 2002 is well below the OECD average of 1.40%, while Dutch public spending on R&D of 0.67% in 2002 was on par with the OECD average of 0.68%. Accordingly the Netherlands is stronger in basic research indicators than in innovation indicators. Dutch scientific publications constituted a 15% of the world total in 2001 (data supplied by NWO and the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science). As noted the research intensive universities are strong in international terms, but despite rather than because of a system of incentives operating at the national level (see Section Three).

The 2006 OECD *Economic Survey* of the Netherlands noted that the country has an excellent record in knowledge creation but a mediocre record in innovation activity, which is defined as the successful development and commercialisation of knowledge in new products and/or processes'. The rate of scientific publications per capita is the sixth highest in the OECD and these publications have an excellent citation impact. But the nation ranks only 15th in the 2004 EIS Summary Innovation Index, well below the leaders (1-106). In policy circles in the Netherlands this is dubbed the 'Dutch innovation paradox'; though the problem is also more general to Western Europe and is known as the 'European paradox'. The 'paradox' in the Netherlands originates from the industry structure: the Netherlands is primarily a service economy and there is a limited number of large scale firms requiring R&D. The 'paradox' has stimulated a broad range of policy schemes, incentives and funding incentives that are designed to stimulate innovation through industry-university and public-private partnerships. These are discussed in Chapter Seven.

The Country Background Report for this review concluded that the Netherlands secures a good quality and quantity of 'outputs' for a relatively low national funding outlay, though the proportion of students who graduate, and the speed of their graduation, could be better. 'Good value for money is one of the main characteristics of the entire system' (p. 93). Good

propose a different measure of achievement, in which the public and leaders ask “is our tertiary system sufficient to meet the demands of European and global future, in which we must become a leading large economy – and at the same time able to assist in the integration and second generation immigrant populations into the human capital core of the nation?”

3. System and Institutional Governance

und

Netherlands aspires to use its tertiary education resources to help it into a European leadership position among knowledge-based economies by 2010. The government has strategies to achieve this goal, set out in policy documents such as the *Hoger Onderwijs en Onderzoek Plan* (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, 2004). Four ministries – Finance, Economic Affairs, Education, Culture and Science and Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality – are involved in formulating and executing tertiary education policy and working toward this end.

The primary responsibility for national funding, programmes and policy in higher education is assumed by the Ministry of OCW (Education, Culture and Science). The Ministry was recently reorganised to combine the responsibilities for research-intensive universities and HBOs. In the past, the number of OCW tertiary education staff was reduced from 140 to 100 (Interview with Erik Martijnse, CHEPS, 2006, p. 4). This reduction may have affected programme capacity in specific areas during the period of the visit by the review team. The ministry of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality is responsible for the institutions in the domain of agriculture and natural environment.

In 2003 the felt need to accelerate innovation processes in the Netherlands, the ‘silo’ character of programme administration and the need for better coordination of education, research and industry policy in key sectors prompted the initiation of the Innovation Platform by the Prime Minister. This is a cross-portfolio task force with membership from the Ministries of Economic Affairs and Education, Culture and Science, leading companies such as Philips and Shell, and personnel from the research sector

than that of the *hogescholen* (HBOs), which educate the majority of . The HBOs have a restricted power to award degrees and are not funded by government for programmes at Masters level, though they run some professional and research Masters programmes and would like to do these activities.

Traditional binary systems tradition and reality do not always coincide. Traditional wisdom is that the HBOs are associated with the preparation of students for work in smaller and localised enterprises, and also for professions (Background Report, p. 76), suggesting that graduates are prepared for locally rooted professions; while by implication research-intensive university graduates are more broadly prepared. In practice this does not effectively distinguish the HBOs from the research-intensive universities. Labour markets are increasingly mobile and career changes over a working lifetime increasingly frequent. Graduates from either sector can work in enterprises of varying size and varying degrees of localisation. Dutch graduates from either sector are now more likely than ever to work across the Netherlands, across Europe and elsewhere in the world. Research-intensive universities prepare professionals in some fields while the HBOs, could expand their role in shorter programmes and vocational education. Like research-intensive universities although less so, HBOs offer some programmes with a generic content. There is overlap in fields such as law and communications. Some HBOs would like to expand their offerings to Arts/Science degrees.

It might be possible to distinguish the sectors more precisely on the basis of the occupations and industries they respectively prepare, but such a distinction would blur in places and would be more arbitrary than a research-based one. Rather, it is research that provides a clear-cut distinction. Only research-intensive universities have a significant involvement in internationally competitive basic research and doctoral programmes, and have a high proportion of research-intensive staff. The HBOs have some involvement in research processes: they have access to R&D support through the *lectoren* programme (see Box 7.7.1) and would like to extend their research activities but they do not maintain a significant basic research capacity. Currently only 5% of HBO staff hold doctoral qualifications and few HBO staff currently publish in internationally recognised research journals at scale. Because many HBO members prefer to write in Dutch rather than the English used in international journals, the HBOs are considering a reward system for publishing HBO-based definitions of publication and research impact.

arms, these proposals appeared designed to secure closer parity with research-intensive universities, in terms of status and resources. Perhaps funding is seen as key to closing the resources gap between the two sectors. Likewise some in the HBOs see the *lectoren* programme not so much as a means of developing teaching-driven research and consultancy as in the SMEs, so much as the beach-head for a research role rivaling that of the WOs. The research-intensive universities are concerned that the binary system may break down if such changes go ahead. At the same time their own forays into professional and occupationally specific programmes, to secure the funding generated by student numbers, are converging with the role of the HBOs as popularly understood. There are all signs of impending academic ‘drift’ that, if unchecked, could undermine the rationale for and the structural supports of the binary system. If policy makers remained committed to the binary line they would need to reconsider the several and mutual operations of the two sectors and to move the binary line on an ongoing basis.

Binary systems based on a limited and fixed diversification can work if the institutions are not permitted to change mission/profile outside the parameters of their mutually exclusive roles. Such systems require tight policing. The alternative is to move towards a more flexible single system permitting substantial variations in mission/profile. After the UK and Australia abolished their binary systems there was a tendency to revert to a single template of research university model, intensive across the fields of study. Arguably this foreshadowed a smaller number of research intensive universities than either nation needed; in fact both national systems contain a substantial number of institutions in which doctoral training and basic research are not fully developed in all fields. The British Research Assessment Exercise and the Australian policy of fostering greater diversity through university accreditation now point towards a pattern of more complex and diverse institutions within the national system. In both nations several types of institution have emerged on an informal basis with self-managed groupings.

Though binary systems have been abolished in some nations they have been successful in others. The German *Fachhochschulen* have secured an international standing in excess of that of the Dutch HBOs. Doctoral qualifications are normal among faculty in the *Fachhochschulen* though the institutions are not funded for research on the scale of the academic universities. The German system is based on a belief that the academic

the doubling of higher education enrolments between 1990 and 2000. The polytechnics are distinguished on the basis of shorter study programmes, a more technically oriented and applied approach, more input from employers and local and regional authorities, and a more element of localised financing (OECD, 2006b, pp. 121-122). Finland appears to be moving towards a more flexible binary system in which the content and type of diversification is managed according to judgments of national and regional needs. A feature of the Finnish system is the management given to shared facilities, programmes and marketing across the binary divide. Some proposals for limited mergers are also under consideration. In the Netherlands WO/HBO mergers have become a chief mechanism for creating flexibility and sustaining growth. However, in the absence of a tightly defined binary divide, without the formal mandating of roles and variety within and across the sectors, such cross-binary mergers can compound the confusion of roles and expectations.

At the top echelon of academic research the best Dutch researchers and institutions compete directly with the rest of the world in what has become a global knowledge system. The quality and quantity of research in the Netherlands intensive universities is testified by international comparisons of publications and citations across all broad discipline groups, with Dutch research in Medicine a standout area; and though there is continuing scope for improvement, the nation can be proud of its achievements in this regard, to provide a solid floor for the national innovation system. Nevertheless there are some indications that Netherlands research is less than fully competitive as a national system *qua* system. The spirit of excellence tends to be concentrated at the top of the academic profession, the part directly involved in international research at the highest level, rather than permeating the whole of localised research and scholarly activity. Voluntary cultures of excellence are better at driving high performance among the best researchers than in the whole of a knowledge system. Given the present structure it is doubtful that the Netherlands can attract enough foreign researchers to compensate for the front rank Dutch researchers who leave the country. Further, though NWO funding is based on the basis of merit, competitive pressures in the research funding environment of the basic grant are muted. That part of basic research funding that is performance-related is provided in the form of lump sums to the universities so that there is no guarantee that it will be internally allocated to the reinforcement of research capacity rather than, say, plugging holes in

tion brought to bear on research funding and a clear-cut linkage between research merit and resource support.

the student markets, where there is no equivalent of the drive for top-research excellence, competitive pressures are weaker than in research. BOs have no obvious international competitor for their student. The research-intensive universities have a guaranteed student as well. There is no systematic evidence on the quality of teaching in the sector: no one knows if this is improving or declining. In response to concerns on the point of teaching quality, the review team was provided with data on employment rates of graduates, and on the admission process. While graduate employability is in itself a relevant indicator, especially from the point of view of graduates themselves, it does not answer the need for data on teaching quality. Employment rates do not distinguish between educational effects and labour market effects.

As a truth universally acknowledged in the research-intensive universities, one also emphasised to the review team by VNO-NCW, that universities must position themselves in the international context. The drive for internationally competitive research excellence is formally embedded in the Netherlands through the process of accreditation of research schools and the involvement of foreign peers in the quality assurance of research schools (Background Report, p. 77; see also Section Seven). Some national research schemes turn on competition for bids for support of projects and individuals, though the majority of research-based funding continues to be allocated within the block grant, which retards direct competition on the basis of excellence. In general direct competitive pressures and allocations are shaped more on a disciplinary than an institutional basis. The new question at issue is the potential of the concentration of resource concentrations on an institution-wide basis, interacting with the status driver typical of elite research universities, to strengthen the competitive position of research in the Netherlands.

Whether better or worse the present global standing of Dutch universities is determined in, and to a degree formed by, their position in the two sets of university rankings issued annually by Shanghai Jiao Tong University (first published in 2003) and the *Times Higher Education Supplement* (first published in 2004).⁴ Dutch universities do fairly well under both

the global university rankings issued by *Newsweek* are not separate rankings in

s. Of the two the more significant data are the Shanghai Jiao Tong s that are transparent, based on credible metrics and focused on , the main signifier of the standing of university activities de. The bulk of the Shanghai Jiao Tong index is determined by ion and citation, principally in the science-based disciplines with attention to social sciences and humanities: 20% citation in leading ; 20% articles in *Science* and *Nature*; and 20% the number of n/ISI 'HiCi' researchers on the basis of citation (Institute for ic Information, 2006). Another 30% is determined by the winners of Prizes in the sciences and economics and Fields Medals in atics, based on the location of training (10%) and current ment (20%). The remaining 10% is determined by dividing the total from the above data by the number of faculty.

Tong research performance is dominated by the English speaking which have 71% of the world's top 100 research universities, and arly by the United States which has 17 of the top 20 and 54 of the in 2006. The Netherlands has two universities in the Shanghai Jiao world's top 100 - the University of Utrecht at number 40 and the ity of Leiden at 72 - and seven universities in the top 200, which . Amsterdam, Groningen, Delft, the Free University Amsterdam and ngen. On this measure the Netherlands is sixth nation in the world e USA (87 universities in the top 200), the UK (22), Germany (15), 9) and Canada (8) and just ahead of France, Switzerland, Australia y with six universities each; although France, Switzerland and all have more universities than does the Netherlands in the Jiao p 100. In total the Netherlands has 12 universities in the full Jiao p 500: the remaining five are Erasmus University in Rotterdam, en, TU Eindhoven, Maastricht and TU Twente (Shanghai Jiao Tong ity Institute of Higher Education, 2006).

institution and nation's performance in the Jiao Tong ranking is by the presence of 'HiCi' researchers classified by Thomson/ISI as he top 250-300 in their field worldwide. 3 614 of the Thomson/ISI ' researchers are in the USA, compared to 224 in Germany, 138 in 94 in Switzerland and 55 in Sweden. There are 90 in the nds. In comparison Harvard and its affiliated institutes have 168 earchers, Stanford has 132, and the University of Cambridge in the 42. In the Netherlands Leiden has 15 HiCi researchers, Utrecht 14, ngen 13 and the Free University 10 (Institute for Scientific

Dutch Universities in The Shanghai Jiao Tong University Ranking of The World's Top 500 Research Universities, 2006

	Position in Jiao Tong University rankings	Number of Thomson/ISI 'HiCi' researchers
recht	40	14
iden	72	15
nsterdam	102-150	6
oningen	102-150	4
J Delft	151-200	1
ee University Amsterdam	151-200	10
ageningen	151-200	13
asmus, Rotterdam	201-300	5
jmegen	201-300	1
J Eindhoven	301-400	0
aastricht	301-400	1
J Twente	301-400	2
ther researcher locations	n.a.	18

= not applicable

From the point of view of system organisation, the question now posed in the rankings is whether, and if so to what extent, government should pursue a deliberate policy of concentration of resources and activities, especially in research, so as to enable the top research universities to compete on more equal terms with the English-speaking nations. Front rank universities are strong global magnets for high calibre researchers, doctoral students, public research funding from different nations, and corporate investments in university research located anywhere in the world. All else being equal, the location in the Netherlands of several universities with the academic and status firepower of Oxford or Yale would significantly increase research capacity within the global knowledge economy; although in itself it does not guarantee that this enhanced capacity would necessarily be aligned with national economic objectives. A number of national governments are presently considering the potential offered by policies of concentration on an institutional basis, notably Germany, Japan, and China. This is distinct

f institutional status (the 'brand') is deployed to maximum national
 al advantage.

the other hand, those national governments that go down this road
 nt to avoid weakening existing research capacity and morale in
 ons not chosen for front rank status. A broad-based national research
 is also an advantage in the global context. It would be better to
 by adding new resources to the designated institutions, rather than a
 n distribution which may leave the national system no better off

ome respects the structure of institution-government relations in the
 ands is closer to that of the UK than the public service
 trations of much of Europe. The model has been described as 'state
 ion' rather than 'state control' (Background Report, p. 72). Since
 W Law on higher education first issued in 1992 institutions have
 a relatively high level of autonomy. They receive a block grant
 overnment based on a transparent formula, own their buildings and
 professors; though Ministerial permission is required to move into a
 cation or offer a programme that may be duplicated elsewhere.
 onal control over student numbers is limited by the fact that they
 dmit all students with the required secondary school certificate,
 limits can be set in particular subjects (Background Report, pp. 71-
 the research intensive universities there is external accreditation
 an self-accreditation. As in many other national systems, in recent
 entral government has exerted a greater authority via accountability
 nents. It seems this is driven more by avoidance of risk than by
 o closely shape the product of higher education.

ent experiments in institution-government relations tend towards a
 arket-like system, for example through tuition price variation. There
 in measures that open up a more diverse range of provision and of
 hes to existing provision, provided that the incentives point
 rs, consumers and community and industry users of higher education
 excellence and innovation, *e.g.* rather than institutions competing on
 s of price cutting in standardised programmes. Measures opening up
 active role for student decision-making; and/or encourage higher
 f student achievement are especially welcome. At this stage these
 xperiments have had minor effects in the system as a whole. (More
 bout this area below and Chapter Four).

ance-related component and another component known as the Considerations Component. It is provided on the basis of block grants. Stream 2, approximately 10% of research funding in total, consists of monies allocated on academic grounds by the principal research funding agency based on evaluation of research excellence and competitive funding projects and programmes. The remaining 30% of research funding in Stream 3 is monies for research conducted for government departments, university income, philanthropic foundations, European sources, etc. (AWT, 2004a, p. 19). Institutions are required to support Stream 2 and 3 with a portion of their Stream 1 monies. One problem that has arisen is that under this formula certain institutions whose incomes under Streams 2 and 3 exceed income under Stream 1 have a disincentive to seek Stream 2 funding (see Chapter Seven).

Currently almost 60% of total university funding is performance-based and will rise to about two thirds when the Smart-Mix component is introduced (see Chapter Seven). About half of all university researchers are now funded by Streams 2 and 3 (AWT, 2005, p. 3). The three-tier structure allows government and national research agencies to influence the flow of research funds by varying the performance-related components, and varying the governing relationship between Stream 1 and the other Streams. There are already a lot of incentives in university research... the university research sector is one of the most competitive sectors of Dutch society (p. 10). On the other hand, as noted the proportion of research funding that is allocated by direct competition for specific support on the basis of excellence – the 10% in Stream 2 – is relatively low.

The institutional governance of the WOs and HBOs is distinctive to the Netherlands and might constitute a useful option for other nations to consider. The Executive Board structure based on three key executive positions (typically designated as Rector; President; and Vice-President, or simply as third member of the Executive Board) constitutes a system of distributed leadership with less dependence on and pressure on a single pivotal authority. The Executive Board structure allows part of the institutional executive to be appointed from outside the university while combining this with leaders drawn from faculty ranks; and is capable of a wide range of variations in the division of portfolios, and the internal/external balance of responsibilities. It can be shaped around the particular strengths of the individuals concerned and/or the strategic needs of the institution or national education. It is possible for the three members of

the institution to mobilise a range of constituencies as constructive actors to governance, while anchoring the institution more firmly. It is an often and particularly local utility in the HBOs but is at least as important in the research universities in providing lines of accountability to industry and community. On the evidence available to the team, both the structure and culture of Supervisory Boards is distinctive. In the institutions visited, it was reported that the Boards become involved in the institution while respecting academic freedoms and their prerogatives. The Supervisory Boards may also serve as a training ground for some outside personnel who are subsequently appointed to vacant Board positions.

In many types of institutions provide employees and students with an opportunity for voice in governance and management and at field of study level. This involvement in decision-making has been framed at a more local level compared to most other higher education systems. One problem is that it can be difficult to secure the participation of sufficient numbers of personnel and students in active roles within the structures (see Found Report, p. 75).

At the level of fields of study, in the research universities the Faculty Board operates in a manner more similar to academic bodies in other countries, while the HBO director functions more like a manager in a typically managerial organization. The Deanship varies in terms of office, method of appointment, the extent to which the dean is full-time, and the extent to which he/she is drawn into central institutional governance. Conditions also vary in the extent to which internal allocations are finance-related, central authorities can generate initiatives and/or retire from faculty level, and non-faculty staff are administered at central or local levels.

S

Higher education in the Netherlands is stable, well rooted in the history and culture of the nation. Governance, regulation and management being both formal and partly customary, are well understood by practitioners at all levels. Arguably the primary strengths of higher education in the Netherlands lie in its functioning at institutional level, especially but not exclusively in the stronger research universities; and these institutional virtues are

g and occupational preparation, research and consultancy, and
nity services.

ough governance is not always transparent, geographical proximity
asure that all parts of the system are aware of and accessible to each
nd are known to and know of national government. These virtues are
arly manifest in the systems of research support. The set of schemes
ering university-industry cooperation is perhaps unduly complex (see
Seven) but sustains an intensive level of networking and mutual
nding that helps to drive high basic research performance.

re are established traditions of institutional autonomy, sub-
onal autonomy and academic freedom, more so in the research
ties than in the HBOs. Perhaps the governance model works a little
n the research intensive universities for this reason, given the
alised character of faculty cultures, and authority that is often
y rather than bureaucratic, providing that formal and informal
ance drivers establish an adequate framework of incentives. The
nce model is optimised in institutions where decentralised academic
operates in tandem with central executive systems for steering
s and monitoring performance that are tailored so as to fit each field
ty.

the institutional level the temper of governance on the whole is
consultative and democratic. Little energy is wasted in symbolic
g and conflict. People get on with the job.

re are also well established habits of cooperation throughout higher
on, as evidenced for example in the collaboration between the
l universities, the merger negotiations between research universities
Os, and the operations of agencies such as TNO that work across
boundaries. Another example is the cooperation between the
ngen University, the agricultural HBOs and Agricultural Education
(offering vocational and pre-vocational education) within the
of agriculture and natural environment. These institutions together
“Groene kenniscoöperatie”. Though there are tensions in the binary
ne tensions are inevitable in any binary system.

other strength is that at times the national authorities make effective
isinterested expertise in policy making. One example is the Advisory
for Science and Technology Policy, which has a mandate to provide

ments are willing to use experts creatively in this way. At times the government also makes effective use of foreign expertise, for example in the selection of policy tools and programmes; as indeed the government commissioned this thematic OECD review by an external team.

The distinctive structure of governance at institutional level, with Executive Boards and Supervisory Boards, has significant strengths and as such is one that other nations might consider.

Issues

Based on the evidence of the interviews and consultations during the review visit, the review team concludes that although they are said to be aligned with national goals, the Lisbon targets appear to be given ‘lip-service’ without an effective and practical commitment. We suspect that this is an example of a more general problem. It seems that the practical implications of national goals in tertiary education, in the areas of priorities, resources and transformation of practices and cultures, are rarely analysed or addressed. In other words, such goals appear to operate largely at the rhetorical level and as part of the ‘noise’ of electoral politics, with not much attention about implementation. If this is so, it is a key weakness in the governance of the higher education system *qua* system.

Even if the work of tertiary institutions is often good, this happens despite rather than because of the national policy framework and incentives. The major weaknesses in governance and management are found at the institutional level, in system policy and steering. The review team became increasingly concerned about the handling of strategic direction and new initiatives at OCW (with the partial exception of the policy field of research and innovation, much of which lies outside OCW). In many respects the Dutch higher education system appears to be on ‘auto-pilot’. The capacity (and perhaps willingness) of government to provide executive leadership so as to shape the system in the national interest, including global competitiveness and trajectory, appears under-developed. Some initiatives taken appear to be a case of being seen to do something, rather than addressing real problems with real solutions. These weaknesses, some of which may have their roots in the larger policy/political culture of which this is only one part, retard the capacities of nation and institutions to respond to contemporary challenges. One example is the OCW-generated

or did it go to the root of the problems of Dutch tertiary education, it contribute to the building of a policy consensus for new solutions could be effective and lasting rather than tentative and symbolic. Here not making an argument for more centralised and still less for more strategic approaches to government, which would retard rather than enhance global competence. Rather, the need is for a *strategically effective* one: for a more functional, goal driven relationship between local institutional autonomy, system culture and national strategy. This is likely to mean more local autonomy not less, and a central bureaucracy not more - but also greater transparency at all levels and a more strategic approach to policy. And it should also add up to improved system and institutional performance in the relation to the big performance goals such as the Lisbon targets, global competitiveness, and the inclusion of immigration-based communities. It is long-term outcomes that matter. Here we would contrast the more strategic approach taken by OCW to the strategic and long-term thinking used by policy makers in rising Asian science powers such as Singapore, Korea and China.

Inter-departmental and intra-departmental coherence also could be improved. For example, the Economic Departments of government have different policy ideas in relation to higher education, and the capacity to cross different portfolio areas so as to integrate Education more fully into national priorities. The OCW has the main executive responsibility in relation to education programmes but does not command the policy power of the economic ministries and perhaps this overall fragmentation of labour contributes to the limitations of governmental leadership in tertiary education. Based upon conversations with civil servants and education institutions, the review team developed the impression that many of Education officials sometimes viewed the interventions of other departments, such as the Ministry of Economic Affairs, as a threat to its role in setting higher education policy. Rather than departments responding separately (or aggressively) it would be better to coordinate more closely. There also appears to be room for improved coordination between on one hand the arms of government responsible for education, and on the other hand the arms of government responsible for immigration and integration for immigrant populations.

Attitude change is needed but equally important are formal

is of interests, and the distance between it and programme
entation.

de the OCW the division of labour is not always stable, integrating
isms across bureaux or work units appear to be insufficient, and the
experience in key eras can be highly uneven. The OCW appears to
efficient personnel with a close knowledge of the inside workings of
institutions, for example those who have worked as faculty or in
ty administration. The Inspectorate does not seem well integrated
er operations.

ems that decisions are often 'guided' by short-term factors, and not
nd transparent long-term planning agendas. Perhaps OCW lacks the
to establish genuine operational priorities and focus, and to push for
excellence in a determined way in defined areas so as to achieve
identified outcomes. Our judgement here is that the OCW tends to
he ebb and flow of currents and tensions in the sector, and in the
olicy/political environment, rather than being a point where these
and tensions are resolved. While an element of short-term
veness is an inevitable and desirable part of democratic government,
issue is how short-term and long-term agendas are managed in
to each other, so as to keep the longer-term policy objectives in
/e would expect that a department of government - as distinct from
ce of the Minister - should be a voice for policy rather than politics,
uld carry a brief not for the quick fix but for the long term health and
eness of the system for which it is responsible. The result of being
sponsive than responsible is that the policy position of the Ministry
lways transparent, and in some cases there is no policy. This has
uncertainty in higher education institutions and their representative
ations about 'what the government thinks'. We emphasise that we
imagining or intuiting this problem. The point about 'what the
ment thinks' was made frequently to the review team during the
visits, and was heard in government agencies as well as in
ons with the institutions and the stakeholder organisations.

re attention needs to be given to the development of best practice
ents competent to formulate, initiate, steer, monitor and evaluate in
ional interest. Correspondingly, data collections are not fully
ent, and data capacity in certain key areas is poor, for example
rder faculty movement; cross-border movements of doctoral

ensive data collections, often via accountability requirements. data collections are essential to steering instruments that are nt with self-management and operate at a distance.

ewise, the Netherlands would benefit from a stronger practice of experimentation, for example in the use of pilot schemes, and bid-opportunities to create new initiatives from below.

hina binary system that is marked by a high degree of uniformity each segment, formula-based resource allocation to and within ons, and a student market with little dynamism, higher education s are perhaps too uniform and predictable. This is the downside of efits of stability. There is an under-developed capacity to steer, and reinvent practice in response to changing needs, for example the g requirements created by global competition and European labour r. Executive steering at one level cannot always compensate for cies in the other. Many other higher education systems have a steering capacity at government level, institutional level, or both.

requirement that the Ministry sign off on new programmes seems tent with the broader pattern of university autonomy and tends to nnovation. While the intention is to avoid duplication, monopolistic sation does not always produce optimum results. Even in similar mes competitive pressures and the aggregation of best practice ce can be productive, especially where diverse approaches are ed. Rather than attempting to sort these possibilities from the ial office it would seem better to allow evolution to take its course, e exception of specific areas such as Dentistry and Medicine where oning of provision and centrally determined specialisation are ry for both economic and professional reasons. This issue is further ed in Chapter Eight.

binary line provides for two sectors with distinct roles but neither is ing at optimum level; nor does the fairly inflexible binary structure he fullest range of national needs to be met. The research intensive ties are relatively strong in basic research and find it relatively easy ate their relatively homogenous clientele, but their relationship with is provider-pastoral rather than student-driven and given the isms of funding and enrolment the adequacy of teaching and support is untested through the rigours of competition. The HBO system,

g-oriented institutions - and the structure of the educational place in the Netherlands - protects them from systematic scrutiny and attention on these national and international dimensions. Given these frameworks neither sector is guaranteed to be competitive in the recruitment of foreign students or to respond to the substantial challenges of globalisation, global competition and immigrant populations. In addition to the principal sectors there is a small number of *aangewezen instellingen*, institutions with the authority to award degrees. These have a very small enrolment share and do not constitute substantial system diversity or exert any meaningful competitive pressure for the WOs and HBOs.

There is insufficient scope across the system for diversification and innovation. Differences in mission and *modus operandi* are restricted to a narrow banding from the binary line and this is relatively inflexible. Without sufficient diversity within each segment, a renovation of the HBOs to reflect a modernised and global service economy, and more active relationships with other institutions and their student and employer markets, the binary system constitutes a limited, inflexible division of labour.

As the weakness of direct competition for research programme and funding diminishes the potential for excellence in the research sector, so the absence of a genuine market in teaching inhibits both teaching excellence and client-oriented diversity in that sphere. The funding and recruitment system creates certain perverse incentives that work against both teaching excellence and diversity of programme and mission, such as the allocation of guaranteed local entry to specified 'seats' and the boosting of enrolment numbers beyond capacity to augment income. The absence of price variation in most programmes means that it is difficult for institutions to create 'lighthouse' programmes with high quality or to pursue a new mission.

The outcome is that while institutions enjoy an appropriate level of institutional autonomy, public authorities have failed to create a policy environment in which tertiary education institutions can fully exploit that autonomy through innovation and client-oriented specialisation, and external stakeholders can be brought to bear on the institutions so as to entrench them in societal priorities and local needs.

In addition the system is largely closed to foreign institutions, despite the fact that they might offer valid educational opportunities for Dutch students, and some Dutch citizens already go abroad for higher

other sub-set of the segmentation and diversity issue is the question of the possible 'super-league' institutions. Although the quality of basic research in Dutch universities is very good overall, and all research institutions contribute to this, at this stage the nation has not developed leading individual research universities that are comparable to those of the USA and the UK, or even those of Switzerland.

At the institutional level, in the research universities while practices vary, on the whole there is insufficient recognition of the value of central planning, management and monitoring in achieving policy goals. It appears that central executive capacity is weak *vis-à-vis* the faculties. There is inconsistent evidence of a performance economy within the universities, or a nuanced capacity for strategic adjustment of resources. There is little evidence that in either sector institutions consistently reward excellence in teaching (especially) and research according to agreed and consistent criteria. Decentralised allocations are more performance-related in the research universities than others. Funding often tends to follow standardized patterns. At the central level at least some universities do not appear to have comprehensive data sets that can enable them to profile themselves in consistent fashion, and test faculty performance against targets.

One may interpret disciplinary autonomy as *sui generis* independence. This independence is appropriate in determining the directions of research and scholarship. But autonomy should never be solely self-governing and non-transparent. Teaching and research within academic institutions should always be coupled to tests of excellence and use. Nor should research activities be conducted in the absence of the centrally determined policies, strategies and requirements of the institution. In Dutch research universities it is not always guaranteed that the faculties will work to fulfil their institutional missions, achieve performance targets, optimise incomes and resources, and secure identified developmental priorities. It is true that self-governing operations can produce outstanding outcomes, but this is only in very strong institutions where the tests of excellence are realistic, rigorous and exacting, rather than merely ritualistic. One classic example of a strongly performing university coupled to a weak executive is the University of Cambridge in the UK. Given the demands of modernised higher education and the intensely competitive character of global higher education such cases are exceptional; and even in such cases, when central disciplinary strategies are not coordinated in optimum fashion results are often mixed. This is particularly true in the case of the Netherlands, where the central executive has been weak for many years.

ness of comparative international benchmarks and performances, at the level of fields of study and research groups. Likewise there is necessary consistency between national and local mechanism and drivers. The concentration on Stream 1 for the bulk of research funding reduces the potential exercise of national strategic leadership in relation to research and development, the more so because by their nature the content of programmes are slow to change and teaching the costs are relatively

both the research universities and the HBOs there seems to be a lack of awareness of the potential for diversifying and increasing incomes. Neither the drive to build commercial incomes, nor philanthropic support, is universally or strongly established (for more discussion see Section Four).

HBOs would benefit from the development of a fuller range of instruments of steering such as performance monitoring, and strategic development funds distributed on a competitive basis. Compared to the research-intensive universities, the HBOs appear to have fewer professional staff attached to their executive boards. This reduces comparative steering capacity. Some HBOs also seem to reflect a more top down and bureaucratic structure with less capacity for initiative at the point of delivery of services. The enhancement of the capacity for autonomous action requires the presence of an academically stronger leadership at the unit level of the HBO. But more could be done to nurture such an approach.

In both sectors innovations in the educational programme can take too long, inhibiting responsiveness. One research university administrator reported to the review team an innovation cycle of 4-5 years duration. The HBOs do better in this regard: one HBO board member estimated the time to implement at 18 months. Both make an interesting comparison with the time required to start a business in the Netherlands, which is around 18 months (World Bank statistical data for 2004, *Netherlands data profile*).

Students have an important formal role in governance, particularly in the HBOs, but an under-developed role at national level. HBO students have only a weak presence in national student organisation.

As noted, students have little effective authority in terms of resource allocation. There is a notion of a student-centred market which is formally acknowledged but in the context of near automatic entry systems and the

the choice of university and faculty is a stronger area (see Four).

Recommendations

The study team strongly recommends review of the mechanisms for coordination between the Department of Finance, the Department of Public Affairs, and the Department of Education, Culture and Science, to ensure the more coherent alignment with national policy objectives and leadership, of programme administration in education and research.

The team further suggested that there be a review of existing OCW data collection, analysis and dissemination procedures in order to ensure more comprehensive coverage, and also greater national and international awareness of, and awareness of, the national system of higher education.

For any kind of binary line to be viable in the longer term it is necessary that both sectors are operating at a continuously advancing level of innovation, with the capacity to shape both a national and international environment while such roles may continue to differ between the sectors. If the sectors are weakly integrated into national, European and global contexts, then they are likely to become increasingly unattractive to local and international students, to potential faculty and to Dutch employers and the larger system is so becoming increasingly destabilised and forced into measures designed to strengthen their profile regardless of the preferred national role and real capacity.

The binary line should be rendered more dynamic over time, with freer movement across and between the sectors. More attention should be given to linking student pathways between the two sectors (see Chapter Five) and to further increasing the institutional cooperation between them. For if the binary line is to be maintained then variations should take the form of collaborative arrangements and couplings of distinct units from one sector, rather than free-standing imitation and blending of functions. The academic research mission of the WOs, and their monopoly of research in the form of research Masters and doctoral degrees, stands as the traditional dividing line along which the binary system can be policed.

The occupational mission of the HBOs suggests that they should move more extensively into flexible short courses, continuing vocational

ate with foreign universities. In the knowledge economy context, it
ult to envisage reflexive advanced training that is not somewhere
o an R&D capacity.

the other hand the development of a broad HBO capacity in *basic*
would deplete resources needed for further building the research-
e universities to global competitive levels of capacity and
ance. In the absence of such an HBO research capacity it is
ble to justify the introduction of government funded research
and doctoral programmes – especially given that there are few HBO
ly qualified to provide research degree supervision - or additional
o support basic or strategic basic research in the HBOs. Without a
ant capacity in basic research a university cannot be fully
itive in applied research and consultancy, but some such activities
ain reach. The research role of the *lectoren* should be built in the
f teaching-led research, rather than trying to create research-led
g as applies in the postgraduate programmes of research-intensive
ties. The *lectoren* programme thereby would better contribute to the
of the HBOs in professional education and while establishing a
onsultancy function serving SMEs.

hout creating the expectation of a level playing field in research
, HBOs should be free to bid for competitive government research
onsultancy funding, as AMK higher professional institutions are
d to do in Finland. This is consistent with recent developments such
lectoren programme and would ensure that as pockets of capacity
in the HBOs, these become more fully accessible to the national
on system. Inescapably, the augmentation of R&D capacity requires
loyment of more doctorally trained staff in the HBOs. In the next
it becomes possible to do this at scale, because a surfeit of PhDs in
isciplines, given the difficulty of obtaining faculty posts in the
intensive universities, coincides with the large number of
ng retirements in the HBOs generated by the present age profile of
aff (further measures to develop research capacity in the HBOs are
d in Chapter Seven).

ne research intensive universities the central research agencies could
a greater strategic purchase on priorities if additional public support
arch was channelled through Stream 2 (especially) and Stream 3
han Stream 1 funding - provided that Stream 2 was reworked to

relation to institutional diversity, consideration should be given to policies designed to qualitatively strengthen selected research entities, possibly through additional funding for research infrastructure programmes, and deregulation of academic remuneration to facilitate appointment of high calibre foreign faculty and post-docs. Such a theme of fostering 'global universities' would need to be widely understood within the Netherlands in order to facilitate the achievement of a broad national consensus concerning the selection of the institutions.

Government could establish a project-based fund for institutional innovation in management and internal systems, subject to bidding. For example, institutions could submit proposals for funding for innovations in selection systems and performance-based resource allocation.

At the institutional level there is scope for substantial enhancement of the strategic funding in the hands of both central boards and of faculty and committees. It is noted that the Chang committee recommended creation of a financial reserve at the level of the Board, for distribution on the basis of performance and of bids for innovations. Faculties and sub-units, including research groups that raise additional private incomes, could be rewarded by allocating them an enhanced proportion of public funds; provided that institutions continue to safeguard the resources of disciplines with minor prospects of raising non-government income.

4. *Resourcing Tertiary Education*

und

tertiary education in the Netherlands is financed primarily by government support of institutions. Institutional support from public sources in 2006 is approximately EUR 5.3 billion. This represents an estimated 76% of total support, with approximately 21% provided by private sources such as tuition fees and private contributions. Based on 2003 data, the Netherlands is somewhat above the OECD average of 76% from public sources and below the average of 24% from private sources (OECD, 2006a). The government support of student financial aid of various types adds approximately EUR 1.7 billion to the overall effort.

The Netherlands' total financial support of tertiary education institutions is supported by several measures. Comparing European Union countries on the basis of the 2006 figures, the Netherlands ranks third only behind the United Kingdom in expenditures per student, including research expenditures. Excluding research expenditures, the Netherlands ranks third behind Denmark and Belgium. The amount of per student support in the Netherlands over the past eight years has not declined markedly, despite a small increase in enrolment and an economic recession. (OCW, 2006c, p. 24-27).

On the other hand, comparing per student expenditures relative to per capita GDP, the Netherlands ranks well below the OECD average and below most EU countries (OECD, 2006b, p. 122). Per student expenditures relative to GDP per capita are a measure of expenditure per student that has been standardized to national wealth. This shows that *relative to its national wealth* and the size of its student population, the Netherlands is spending less on average than most other OECD nations.

institutions), were EUR 1 496 for most students for 2005-06. Students who begin their studies too late, or take too long completing them, or whose coursework is unfunded by the government, must pay higher rates set by the institutions. The lack of a private university sector in the Netherlands' current education configuration limits the potential of more market driven funding sources from tuition fees.

For the research-intensive universities and in the HBOs between 1995 and 2005 there was almost no change in the proportion of total funding sourced from the government (OCW, 2006c, pp. 51-52).

As noted in Chapter Three, over the past decade institutions have gained more autonomy, including ownership of their own campuses and capital facilities. Formula based, lump sum budgeting has replaced a more centralized, regulatory approach. Lump sum budgeting provides many advantages over alternative methods. It replaced a system in which a great deal of time and resources were devoted to regulatory compliance. The liberalization of tertiary education has allowed institutions more flexibility in how they manage their finances, and has led to a more efficient use of funds. Institutions are now able to be paying off with increased institutional cooperation and coordination. Institutions have merged with one another, worked together to develop more programmes based on students' needs, and developed better working relationships in their respective regions, according to anecdotal evidence gathered in numerous interviews with institutional administrators.

Lump sum allocations are based on relatively simple formulas for the distribution of financial support among both types of institutions in the current system. Institutions' education budgets, exclusive of research, are composed of a base funding component, representing 37%, a results component calculated from the number of diplomas, representing 50%, and a component based on the number of first year students, representing 13%. For HBOs, total enrolment is used and dropouts are considered as well as students receiving diplomas. Another factor, to improve HBO efficiency, is added to the formula to encourage timely completion. If students take more than 5 years to graduate and dropouts remain more than 1.35 years, a multiplier factor of less than 1.0 is applied to the formula (Background Information pp. 62-63). Research funding is added to the lump sum distributions for universities and budget support for *lectoren* is added for HBOs, as discussed in Chapter Seven.

Several years ago, public institutions were given both ownership and control of their own campuses and capital facilities. Capital expenditures

ons can use debt financing when necessary to pay for the facilities years of their useful lives.

006 the Ministry of Education developed a bill – now suspended – ng the implementation of student “learning entitlements.” Under this l, when a student registered the national government would credit a t directly to the enrolling institution, so that government support ollow students’ enrolment choices more closely. Additionally, the d law envisioned moving towards a more differentiated system ore choices in pricing, programmes and quality. If such a proposal opted, it would be a significant departure for the Netherlands in that tion between institutions might stimulate welcome changes such as d teaching, programme innovations, changes in the relationships a costs and revenues, and additional discretionary revenues. There also be difficulties with such an approach: for example, already institutions could take advantage of weaker ones without asurate improvements. A differentiated system that entails student and pricing changes would also invite new questions about equity. ore about equity in Chapter Five.) The student financial aid system eed to change to accommodate higher tuition fees. The Netherlands ed to look to other countries such as the United Kingdom for new or al student finance models. All of these possibilities are likely to e debate on the mechanisms and limits of differentiation. The ty of selection ‘at the gate’ or point of entry is itself a big shift in These matters may be reconsidered by the new government that has med in 2007.

nts to students (which, unlike loans, do not have to be paid back d the student graduates in time) totalled EUR 786.2 million in 2004. grant is provided to all students, and there is a supplementary grant to parental income for those of lesser means. Since 2000, the of grants has been limited to the normal number of years it takes to e the course. If students are still studying at the end of that time they d alternative finance (Background Report, p. 20). One way is to take rom the government. Students can take a loan of up to EUR 800 per for three years after the grant period. During this time they receive lic transportation allowance as a grant. A public transportation ce provides students an additional 298 million Euro benefit, and students add another EUR 597 million. In 2003 25.9% of all public transportation expenditure in the Netherlands was in the form of

middle class families). At the same time students from poorer
families receive the additional supplementary grant. At present 30% of
students receive the supplementary grant and a total of 43% of all grants
(supplementary and public transportation) go to those students.

Loans are not considered outlays in the national budget inasmuch as
they provide future revenue for the government. Student loans are handled
by the government so as to avoid excessive student loan subsidies to
private institutions. Loans provide relatively generous repayment terms, including a
grace period of two years before repayment begins, forbearances for low
income students, and 15-year loan terms after which further repayments are
not required. The initial loan default rate of approximately 10% is reduced
by systematic collection efforts. From 2007 a new law for student
loans will be implemented, with loans to cover college fees - an
annual loan the size of the tuition fee that the student has to pay will be
provided during the grant and the loan period. Repayment terms for the
loans will remain unchanged, including the option for students to choose
a contingent repayment.

Additional programmes funded by employer fees add substantially to
the financial support of tertiary education. Although not all programmes of a
national Euro annual fee-based fund are for the education of students, the
employers' payments make a major contribution to the overall effort.

Encouraging students to use their government student financial aid at such
a high rate leverages the resources of private, accredited tertiary institutions.
There is some interest among both private institutions and the government in
expanding the role of the private education sector in reaching the country's
tertiary education goals, but lacking a tradition of private institutions there is
a strong push to do so.

Faculty resources have been a strength of Dutch tertiary education for
decades. But a very low percentage of academic faculty in the HBOs have
degrees, while the number of PhDs being prepared for academic careers,
especially in science and technology disciplines, is low (see also
OECD, 2006b, p. 7). The age of faculty is a growing concern given the need for
renewal. This is a particular problem in the HBOs given their age
structure. In the HBOs in 2003, 46.3% of faculty were aged 50 years or
older (OCW, 2006b, p. 85). Age-related problems in the universities are not
so severe but to the extent that there are shortages of staff for the universities
this worsens the pressures on the HBOs and make it more difficult for

s and offshore recruitment emphasising the need to improve the drawing power of the system (for more discussion of this aspect see Nine). Contributing to the problem of staffing is the current lack of es for young people who may be contemplating faculty careers. This ably could be dealt with in the new law, discussed above.

men are not represented proportionately either in scientific research faculty positions in general, especially at higher ranks. ‘The ands ranks quite low in Europe for historical and cultural reasons’. In ly 9.4% of professors in the Netherlands were female compared to n Finland, 16.1% in France, 16.1% in Sweden and 15.9% in the UK. rogress is being made, with the ratio in the Netherlands lifting to 2005. At senior lecturer level 15.7% were women. Among doctoral tes in 2005, 41.5% were women (Stichting de Beauvoir, 2006).

2004 the overall Netherlands ratio of students to tertiary teaching 13.6 students per equivalent full-time faculty was lower than the average of 15.5, though the Netherlands ratio was not especially low uropean context (OECD, 2006a, p. 371).

S

he above account suggests, Dutch higher education has a number of ng strengths. Expenditure per student is relatively high compared to tions in the EU. Student financial aid programmes are generous, nded at approximately EUR 1.7 billion for 2006 (a figure that also subsidies to parents of low-income students 12 and above, *i.e.* in ry education).

provision of information to facilitate student choice is advancing. bsite *studiekeuze123* looks promising. Using this, students can e bachelor- and master-level studies in all higher education ons. It is comparable to the German CHE system, though at the time sing this review report was more extensive than CHE in the area of market-related data and weaker in relation to research and onalisation. From January 2007 forward, *studiekeuze123* is e in English, providing wider international access to study tion.

no sum budgeting provides autonomy and flexibility. It is clearly

private sector supplements public effort in several ways. Employers contribute additional funding to the mix. Local and foreign students pay tuition at differing rates appropriate to their differing lifetime tax relationships with the government. Private institutions are utilised by allowing students to use government student financial aid at such institutions.

Issues

Several of the resourcing strengths listed above can be interpreted as weaknesses if using other measures, as some of the strengths carry with them weaknesses. The Netherlands' financial support of tertiary education as a share of gross domestic product is not as strong as it is for other countries, and some of the budget and finance procedures have weaknesses.

Government funding support, from tuition fees and private contributions, is slightly below average overall but noteworthy for certain practices and policies that depart from the norm. Tuition fees may be much higher for students over the age of thirty and for students taking unsubsidized courses, which may raise additional revenues but which also suppresses enrolment.⁵ Additionally, there is a longstanding view strongly held in the Netherlands that because they pay relatively high taxes, tertiary education, including research, should rely on government financing. This view limits financing possibilities on the revenue side of budgets.

The move toward lump sum, formula budgeting, driven increasingly by government choices and implemented without a budget request and negotiation process has left many institutions without a sense of what the government wants or needs from them. As noted in Chapter Three, guidance and communication from the ministries are weak, whether via funding mechanisms or other means. The question of what the government wants for tertiary education support is fundamental to the whole endeavour, yet there is no consistent reasoning behind any particular level of funding other than the most common social, economic, and tax equity rationales. This leaves tertiary education funding vulnerable to competing claims with more urgent needs (global warming and low country flooding, for one), and threatens the stability of the tertiary education system to the point that it may become untenable over time.

ay institutions themselves do not fully utilise the possibilities e to them under lump sum budgeting. Not surprisingly, the basic ment formula is often used for internal allocations among ents and other entities, but rarely do institutions have offices of onal research, strategic plans, and budgeting processes to innovate erentiate on their own. Following student demand too closely at the onal level can lead to self-defeating cycles in neither the institutions' country's interest. For example, the current lack of student interest in science and technology fields can lead to departmental cut-backs, staff and quality, and subsequently less demand, despite the ledged need for higher quality programmes and more graduates in elds.

ying on student learning entitlements so that funding follows student as its limitations. In the Netherlands, institutions have traditionally differentiated in terms of quality and many offer similar programmes rees. Many if not most students therefore make choices based on hy or friendships or other personal reasons.

eral institutions have ambitious and innovative ideas for programmes ease participation among underserved populations, to increase e with secondary schools, to create residential campuses, to offer quality programmes at commensurately higher prices, to articulate mes between institutions, to work with particular businesses and es, and other noteworthy efforts. Despite lump sum budgeting and egulations, these innovations may not be undertaken without higher l from the government either through special grants and ations or through expressly authorised pilot and demonstration mes.

current pilot and demonstration projects are few, unsystematic, and ionable value as experiments from which to make firm inferences e effects of policies. Findings from current projects will be only al and site-specific. There are no built in research and evaluation ents so as to be able to generalize for purposes of broader entations.

ffing in tertiary education institutions has not received adequate attention. This might be because human resources policy is the ous responsibility of the institutions; though the ministry subsidizes

ment will be difficult. There are few incentives exist to recruit and outstanding faculty.

ital needs at institutions will increasingly compete with operational s current facilities grow older and new plant and equipment are Institutions may have more assets on their books by virtue of their own campuses, but such assets cannot easily be converted into s to meet new capital or operational needs.

dent financial aid is available to all and is not focused primarily on ncially needy. Basic grant and transportation subsidy expenditures dents who doubtless will be participating in tertiary education ly compete with financial support for students whose participation on adequate aid, and with adequate financial support for ling teaching and research at institutions.

pite a student loan programme with generous repayment conditions, students choose to work rather than take advantage of such loans. The so many students feel they have time to work may reflect a lack of ing studies. Interviews with students and faculty suggest that would welcome greater academic challenges. For some students not qualify for low tuition fees at public and private institutions, loan limits are inadequate. The new law improves this situation.

vocational education, some employer groups are dissatisfied with education programmes and prefer students who are trained through grammes of the 2.8 billion Euro fund provided by employers. This s duplication of effort and programme inefficiencies that potentially e reduced by better coordination between public education and .

ough the Netherlands makes good use of its private, accredited education institutions by permitting students to use government and loans at such institutions, the government lacks systematically d information about these students' ages, ethnicities, incomes, for enrolling, and other important characteristics. Without this tion, resourcing policy options cannot be well informed about a ant sector of the country's overall tertiary education efforts.

es devoted to tertiary education as a share of GDP, to match other
n leaders.

needs of the tertiary education system to which additional resources
isely be applied include widening participation, improving faculty
ations at HBOs, seeking and retaining outstanding faculty at all
nvesting in research and development, and other needs as identified
detail in other sections of this report. The recommendations that
concern the means by which such needs might be financed.

existing system, which has many areas of strength, probably cannot
ally overhauled, because it has evolved out of Dutch tradition and
d within the limits of political feasibility. But simply adding more
es into current distribution patterns may not get the best results, in
the aforementioned weaknesses inherent in the existing system.

sequently, the Netherlands should consider adding a separate
of funding that is different from the current distributions, in order to
e new initiatives on both the expenditure and revenue sides of
education budgets. Many institutions are ready to address national
y differentiating themselves in terms of new programmes and
ame quality, new responses to industry needs, targeting populations
g minorities and adult learners, international education, student
n, and price differentiation. Rewarding these initiatives financially
move them ahead more quickly and provide additional incentives for
forts.

mechanisms for such incentives could be adjustments to current
-funding coefficients, matching fund programmes, or competitions
national level to address government identified concerns (which
simultaneously address the current problem of ‘What does the
ment want?’).

ilarly, in research funding the proportion of support provided in the
f performance-related monies and strategic initiative should be
d relative to basic research support. These issues are discussed more
Chapter Three and especially in Chapter Seven.

amounts involved in a new channel of funding may not be as
nt as establishing processes by which additional funds can be wisely
l. New initiatives should be financed only if they are clearly tied to

willing to pay higher tuition fees for them. Some institutions have relationships with industry that could lead to greater private contributions to the institutions' unrestricted funds. Although it has not been the modern Dutch higher education tradition to seek revenues from differentiated tuition rates and from private fund raising, encouraging long-term experimentation with increasing revenues from sources that benefit long tertiary education would help answer questions of where revenues can and should come from if the Netherlands is to be a top leader in European knowledge-based economies. The experience of the United States should be of particular interest in diversifying revenue sources for higher education.

Finally, private, accredited institutions should not be excluded from participation in alternative funding channels where they may have an important function to perform: they serve a particular population, or have special ties to an industry or provide healthy competition for excellence and cost with public institutions.

Government ministries that deal with tertiary education resourcing should be strengthened in terms of data collection, analysis, evaluation, development, and policy implementation.

5. Access and Equity

und

In the Netherlands, there are 534 600 students enrolled in public tertiary institutions (2004) and an estimated 70 000 students in private, non-profit institutions. Enrolments have been increasing in recent years both in numbers of students and percentages of the overall population (OCW, 2004, Fig. 2.11, Fig. 2.13; OCW, 2005, Fig. 17). Because of differences in national systems and definitions, it is difficult to rank countries on tertiary education indicators, but the Netherlands appears to compare favourably with Sweden, Finland, Denmark, the United Kingdom, and the United States on many participation measures (CHEPS,

The Netherlands aspires to have a tertiary education participation rate of 50% of the population by 2010, and it has outlined strategies to meet the goal (OCW, 2004b, p. 24; CHEPS, 2005, pp. 26-27). Although there are different methods of calculating participation rates, by most measures the Netherlands is currently a few percentage points short of its goal. Projections based on current participation policies indicate that the goal may be reached within a decade, but perhaps not by the target date. The strategy to achieve the target consists of three components: increasing recruitment from underrepresented groups, increasing recruitment from upper secondary vocational graduates, and increasing completion rates.

The current policy focuses attention on full-time participation among the 18-30 age group. Students who obtain certain secondary school qualifications must be accepted into Netherlands' public tertiary education institutions. A six-year university preparatory education (VWO) qualifies for admission to an academic university (WO) or to a higher professional

this route may be difficult, owing to the necessity of HBO students bridging programmes that may not be funded, or lack of transparency in admission requirements. All public institutions may grant admission by The Open University has no entrance requirements.

General student equity issues confront the Netherlands. Completion rates for non-western immigrant populations remain lower than for other groups. Full-time students who complete their degrees quickly are compared over part-time students. Family income seems to be an important determinant of tertiary education participation. Students above age thirty do not receive the same financial support as traditional age college students, detracting from the Netherlands' lifelong learning effort. The enrolment rate of the age 30-39 population is only 2.9, compared to an OECD average of 5.6, and of the age 40 and over population it is only 0.8, compared to an OECD average of 1.6 (OECD, 2006a, C1).

One of the equity issues arising in tertiary education may be the result of selection and sorting that goes on in primary and secondary schools, and the difficulty of moving between streams. Although the OECD team reviewed primary and secondary education procedures, the team heard explanation frequently from tertiary educators. Mobility between the HBO stream and the HAVO stream - which is a key element if the doors of lower achieving students, their families and their teachers remain open, so that the negative potential of early streaming to create segregation is minimised - appears to have fluctuated in recent years, having dropped to a low level after system restructuring before returning to previous levels. The review team detected little concern about this during the process of consultation. Much later, there is provision for HBO graduates to move to the HBOs, and HBO graduates to enter research-oriented universities (WOs). However, students wanting to follow these paths are restricted in their potential areas of study by their prior learning. 'Over time we see them many selection moments have passed', as one executive said to the review team. Again, the review team detected concern about rates of mobility or transfer. On the other hand, there is growing evidence that more students are moving between streams at the tertiary level. Students moving from HBO to WO totalled approximately 10 000 in 2000, but 6 700 students followed that pathway in 2004 (OCW, 2005, p. 19).

Participation by non-western minorities is a significant issue in the

on institutions to develop plans to increase enrolments of ethnic
ons, encouraged HBOs and upper secondary vocational schools
to reach agreement on linkages, and encouraged all institutions to
completion rates. In 2004 there was an intake of 7 748 non-Western
ive Dutch students into the HBOs representing 13.4% of the intake.
responding figures for the research intensive universities were 2 242
% (OCW, 2006b, p. 99).

ertheless, the relative participation and completion of non-western
remains an issue. Participation growth has indeed moved up in step
e growth in the overall tertiary population (Background Report,
but completion is still behind (OCW, 2005, Fig. 24). As noted in
Three, some large Dutch cities will be majority minority in a few

OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment singles
Netherlands among several countries where immigrant populations
kely less well prepared than native students in subjects such as
mathematics, and science (OECD, 2006c, p.8).

her, although non-western students are enrolling in greater numbers
utch tertiary education system, their success rates in graduating are
y lower than that of the native Dutch. In the HBOs, for the cohort
ng in 2000, the gap after five years was 20 percentage points. At the
-intensive universities it was 10 percentage points. The trend in the
ems steady, meaning that progress, if any, is slow. It is noteworthy,
r, that fewer non-western minorities are leaving their studies. For
e, at the research-intensive universities, the proportion of non-
students who leave after five years without awards has fallen from
15% over the past six cohorts. These persistence trends are
ging (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Voorburg/Heerlen 2006-6-

ough the overall participation goal has been set, where students
e non-western populations fit in is unclear. The government provides
nor programmes in this area (Background Report, p. 54). There
to be considerable complacency among the Dutch about raising the
ation rates of the non-western populations. The only organisation
de a strong point of raising this issue with the review team was
ad. The matter was addressed at some length in the report *Bridging*
Dutch Tertiary Education: Improving Participation and Completion

several occasions the OECD review team asked various groups of administrators, students, government officials, business institutions, researchers, and others to describe their vision of what Dutch education should look like within the next ten years. No respondents mentioned increasing the participation of non-western populations. On a positive note, the review team visited a few institutions where there was genuine enthusiasm for increasing non-western participation. At the *Hogeschool*, an HBO, administrators showed the review team how they adapted techniques borrowed from TRIO and GEAR-UP programmes in the United States to achieve impressive successes.

S

The Netherlands has a strong sense of equity for participants in tertiary education. Tuition fees are set low at public institutions for students under 30 years of age, regardless of income. Substantial basic grants and subsidised public transportation are likewise available to all. For students from higher income families, this is considered equitable in view of the taxes paid. For the lower income student, needs-based grants supplement the basic grants. Student loans may be written off for students with subsequent incomes. Government grants and loans can be used at all accredited institutions.

As noted, participation rates are slowly rising. The 50% goal is being approached, though participation targets are less important and urgent in the Netherlands than in some other nations.

Within the overall trend, participation by non-western minorities is increasing in both the research-intensive universities and the HBOs (though their share of total enrolments). Their completion rates are also increasing.

Participation by women has been substantially improved and parity has been achieved on many measures. The percentage of women in doctoral programmes is still low but has increased from 18% in 1990 to 41% in the latest compilations (Background Report, p. 50). Continued progress in this measure is essential if the percentage of women in university education is to increase.

For the dropouts from HBOs, a majority eventually succeeds in degree

ptions available in tertiary education, and this will attract additional
ation.

sses

Netherlands may achieve its 50% participation target in the next
rs (OCW, 2005, Fig. 18) but it may take somewhat longer than
and prospects for yet wider participation are limited.

art this is because students are tracked away from tertiary education
age twelve, when many have not yet had the time to show the ability
nation to succeed at the higher level. Tracking students away at an
e makes it difficult for them to change curricula in secondary school.

other reason why national improvements in participation are difficult
ve is that subsidies cut out for students commencing after the age of
. Lifelong learners are not given the same financial considerations
in their teens and twenties to pursue or continue tertiary education.
surprising that, as shown above, the Netherlands' rate of enrolment
age 30 is roughly half of the OECD average. This spells trouble for
ry that aspires to be a leader in a knowledge-based world, as
ge bases are in continual change and leading countries are likely to
that provide lifelong tertiary education to their populations.

principle of equity that characterizes the approach to tertiary
on is not synonymous with equality of opportunity. For those who
e right preparation, are the right age, and have the right kind of
situation, there are abundant opportunities within the tertiary
on system of the Netherlands. But potential students from
rved groups who lack necessary language skills, educational
ion, or have no family members to support them, have more
y entering the system. The secondary school tracking system, as it
y exists, may be an impediment to achieving greater equity.

the extent that the populations that are disproportionately excluded
gher education have considerable numbers of talented people who
tribute to the Dutch knowledge-based economy, the nation's human
es are not being well exploited. The completion rates in higher
on of non-western groups are clearly below average. Not enough is
one about this.

f completion are largely unidentified because data by ethnicity and are likewise not compiled except for the occasional research study. the ethnic composition of faculty are also lacking (Background p. 56).

e policy consideration is given to special incentives to encourage to study in areas that are important to the country. There are low nts of students in secondary education, but scholarships, loan less programmes, and similar incentives are not among the ands' approaches for addressing these needs. In areas where there are ny students, such as pharmacy and certain biological sciences, s *fixus* limits have been imposed. Selective student admission into or high quality programmes is not yet widely practiced. However, rtion of greater control over selection (which was raised by the committee) is a desirable reform that could be used to address a of policy goals.

mpletion may be difficult for students who do not stay on specified hat are subsidised. To the extent that institutions wish to recover ey must charge higher tuition for certain unfunded programmes, g research masters degrees at the HBOs, for students who have d age limits, and students who attend private institutions which higher tuition. The government grant and loan system does not ze the greater financial needs of such students. The expectation that es or family members or other sources should pay for their costs ssen overall participation to some extent. The new law on student nd loans improves this situation. It provides for additional loans for a maximum of five times the publicly set fee.

Recommendations

ause the Netherlands already has considerable success in many of tertiary education participation, and continued improvements are ay, there seems to be no need to make fundamental changes to an functioning system. Nevertheless, there is a need to follow through ore clearly defined and purposeful measures to implement the that has been outlined for increasing participation.

main area where change is needed is not so much at the tertiary the secondary level. The nation's failure to increase the number of

former problem could be addressed by providing more opportunities in secondary schools for children and their families to prepare for tertiary education, for example by lowering the barriers between the secondary and tertiary education tracks. In the end, postponement of the present selection regime seems inevitable, although this is a major change in Dutch society thinks of itself.

Teacher training institutions could address the latter problem more extensively. Recruiting more students into secondary teaching and improving the quality of the academic preparation of secondary teachers are steps that government and institutions could be taking more actively. Good academic preparation of teachers in the sciences and technology is important so that well-qualified teachers can inspire more secondary students to pursue studies in these fields. This needs to be done regardless of labour market conditions at any given time, or current economic sector strengths or weaknesses in the national economy. Science and technology graduates are well prepared for career contributions in many fields and are valuable resources in a country whatever its economic conditions and strategies.

There is considerable anecdotal information that suggests recruiting secondary teachers from underserved minority groups would also raise secondary education participation in these communities. Many individuals, parents, the academic institutions and among minorities, report that teachers from outside these communities are too inclined to track non-minority children away from tertiary education. An additional comment expressed to the OECD team was that secondary school funding is higher for schools that prepare students for tertiary education, making the choice more difficult for schools where non-western students are tracked

as the Netherlands seems not to be focusing on increasing the number of students being prepared for tertiary education, the country also makes only limited efforts to encourage lifetime learning. Students who do not complete their degree programmes before age thirty lose both institutional and student aid subsidies. The experiences of other countries indicate that the Netherlands could raise its participation rate by being more accommodating to older learners. This could also pay dividends in an ageing population and capacity for work force related upgrading and refresher courses.

could be redirected into programmes that focus on the currently served, especially those younger and older than the traditional college-age. Alternatively, the Netherlands could allow the basic grant to exist at current levels without increase, and place new monies into programmes that are designed to increase participation. This would provide a shift in resources over time in real terms rather than being an abrupt change.

Labour Markets and Tertiary Education

tion

Netherlands has an educational system that, viewed in international perspective, is strongly oriented towards employer engagement and working life. At the secondary level, a large proportion of students study in vocational programmes, while at the tertiary level perhaps the largest share of students in any OECD country study in professionally oriented programmes of higher education, *hogescholen*. Tertiary education policies are part of a national policy framework for *hogescholen* that is strongly oriented towards employer engagement. Additionally, the tertiary system is largely demand-driven, *i.e.* in which the number of study places and the range of study offered are adapted to student choices.⁶ Thus, students can respond to labour market signals - unemployment and wages associated with different occupations - and to adapt their study choices accordingly.

The Netherlands labour market offers graduates of tertiary education relatively modest returns on their investment. One recent estimate of the average rate of return to tertiary education suggests that it is about 6% - well below the EU-14 average rate of 8.78%, and far below that of countries such as Germany (9.13), Finland (9.98), and the UK (12.25) (García and Jimeno, 2005).⁷ Closer analysis of the Netherlands case suggests that comparatively modest returns are not due to the high costs of tertiary study (direct costs or opportunity costs), but rather the relatively modest impact that tertiary qualifications have in the Netherlands - relative to upper secondary qualifications - with respect to the

Like other demand-driven systems, such as the UK or US, the Netherlands (like Germany) has a system in which selection *at the point of entry* is not used. Rather, students have the right to study on the course and at the institution of their choice.

ity of unemployment and wages. The private rate of return to going for those who graduate from a HBO programme is, on average, significantly smaller than that of university graduate: an unpublished 2001 study by the CPB estimated of the private rate of return for an HBO degree approximately half that of a university degree (5.5%, as opposed to 10.5% for a university degree (Canton, 2001)).

Employers, partners, researchers, and public officials have raised questions about the tertiary system's adequacy in addressing labour market needs. There have been frequently voiced concerns that the nation's tertiary education system is not producing a sufficient number of science and technology graduates, and thus failing to nurture and sustain high technology growth in the Dutch economy. The connection between employers and HBO sector - while often quite cooperative at a local level - is often marked by conflict at the level of national policy. And, the government itself is not fully confident that the needs of learners are being met by either sector in the binary system.

Market Connections - Strengths

The structure of Netherlands secondary and tertiary education is characterised with an unusually strong orientation towards working life. In secondary education 69.1% of students are enrolled in vocational programmes of study, a share half again greater than the OECD average of 45%. At the level of tertiary study, about two-thirds of undergraduate students are enrolled in *hogescholen*. These institutions offer *hogere beroepsopleiding* (HBO), or higher professional education, the aim of which is to prepare students for working life. This percentage is far higher than that of other tertiary systems within the OECD, including Finland (in which 47% of undergraduate students are enrolled at AMK institutions), or the tertiary systems of Switzerland (29%), Germany (25%), or Austria (9%).

Each *hogescholen* are linked to working life and employers through advisory and instructional staff; through employer participation in the governing boards of HBO institutions; and in advisory relationships with employers and *hogescholen* that extend from the development of programmes to their quality assurance. All HBO courses are to have one or more work placements, thus students experience part of their learning in a work setting. *Hogescholen* instructors are professionals drawn from working

ment of study domain competencies (*domeincompetenties*)⁸ and *gskwalificaties*. Quality assessment panels are required to have members from the related field of work as panel participants. Student market outcomes are monitored by the *arbeidsmarkt monitor* (labour market monitor), HBO-Labour market monitor, an HBO-Council institution that has since 1993 monitored the employment and wages of HBO graduates (ECABO, 2006). Additionally, the Ministry of Education publishes the *Studentenmonitor* (www.studentenmonitor.nl), which has since 2000 surveyed student income, student backgrounds, and other topics.⁹

The relationship between the WO (university) sector and working life is different to that of the HBO sector. There are 13 publicly funded universities in the Netherlands offering *wetenschappelijk onderwijs*, or scientific education.¹⁰ However, four of these thirteen universities are not traditional research universities with Humboldtian roots; three are technical universities (Delft, Eindhoven, and Twente), while one is a university in the domain of agriculture and natural environment (Wageningen). Based upon visits to the first of these institutions – and survey materials concerning the others – it appears to us that they have strong connections to employers and working life. Additionally, we must acknowledge that even research universities with a strongly theoretical and research-led orientation offer study programmes that are in fact strongly oriented towards working life – including programmes in traditionally vocational fields, such as architecture, law, and medicine.

Issues

Though the national policy framework appears in many respects to have a strong foundation for labour market engagement, concerns have often been raised that the tertiary system has a key labour market failure – that it fails to produce sufficient numbers of tertiary graduates in science and engineering, or *beta-techniek* students. Viewed in comparison to other countries the Netherlands does have a small share of science and engineering graduates, and a declining share, as well. In the 1970's about 20% of university graduates were in science and engineering fields, while three decades later this level had fallen to about 18%. By way of contrast,

(31.2), Finland (31.2), and France (29.0) all had a much higher science and engineering students among their tertiary graduates.

Every careful review of the available labour market evidence shows no evidence of a shortage of science and engineering graduates relative to market demand. As the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Studies (CPB) notes in *Scarcity of Science and Engineering Graduates in the Netherlands* (CPB, 2005), tight labour markets are characterised by high labour force participation rates, low unemployment, long working hours, and high vacancy rates.¹¹ A review of labour market data shows that the opposite is the case - that the labour market position of science and engineering graduates relative to other tertiary education graduates has been deteriorating. The wage premium of science and engineering graduates from HBO and university programmes relative to that of other graduates - and compared to a comparison group of economics graduates - has deteriorated since the early to mid-1990s.

Labour analysts speculate that this might be due, in part, to the internationalisation of research and development activities, and to the internationalisation of the labour market for science and engineering graduates. Internationalisation leads firms to locate R&D in countries having a comparative advantage to the Netherlands, and provides Dutch firms with access to an international pool of science and engineering graduates. Both developments have the effect of bringing wages for Dutch science and engineering graduates into line with the international market for science and engineering workers - *i.e.* at a wage that may be lower than that of the Dutch labour markets.¹²

Compared to other systems of tertiary education, the Netherlands system is marked by a relatively low degree of differentiation - within its tertiary system, and within its *hogescholen* sector. Though there are 67 publicly funded tertiary education institutions in the Netherlands,¹³ students are offered two different kinds of education, with very little differentiation with respect to institutional culture and mission, curriculum, the pacing and flexibility of study, pricing, and peer characteristics within each sector.

Similar results for 1985-1996 are provided by Groot and Plug (1999).

11. The Foundation for Economic Research of the University of Amsterdam is

dictably, students in the Netherlands frequently attend a tertiary institution near the place of residence – a sensible decision in a system in which institutions are not seen to differ significantly. The fact that students do not travel greater distances (or relocate) to study at Wageningen University and Maastricht University – two institutions that are distinctive in terms of their study programmes and pedagogy, respectively – suggests that students are not averse to relocation.

University institutions (providing *wetenschappelijk onderwijs*) may be able to establish a distinctive profile or niche, but they have little scope to deviate within the existing framework of national policy – in which student numbers and price differentiation are not possible.

There are examples of striking departures from the norm in the tertiary sector – in which universities have experimented with a shift away from what critics have described as ‘factory-style’ university education, and towards a tutorial or seminar model of education – including University of Utrecht, University College Maastricht, and Roosevelt Academy. However, these have been permitted a very limited and precarious scope of operation, and enrol only a trace of the overall university student population. There may be too little price differentiation possible under the current policy framework to permit this to be a widespread and sustainable form of education.

Alternatively, universities may wish to alter their balance of graduate and undergraduate study towards the former, so as to better support an international research profile, but in a system in which undergraduate numbers carry substantial funding implications, and cannot easily be offset by other revenue streams, this is difficult.

At present, often, critics of the national policy framework note, non-selection and the drive for uniformity drive university institutions to expand student numbers and offer a wide range of course offerings. Many of these newer courses, they argue, do not have the *wetenschappelijk* foundation of traditional academic programmes – but provide instead an interdisciplinary education that may be useful, but not strongly oriented toward working life and the development of professional skills.

With respect to the HBO sector, too, there is frustration about limited diversification. Seen from the vantage point of HBO institutions, their sectoral organisation (the *HBO-Raad*) *hogescholen* should be

arguing that HBO institutions should take on neither expanded education nor wider research responsibilities. Rather, they express a preference to see HBO institutions offer a much wider range of study options – blended work and learning provided on a part-time basis. By international standards the HBO sector offers very little of its provision on a full or dual basis (15 and 1%, respectively), which fits poorly with its role of providing *hoger beroepsonderwijs* to a diverse population of students. Additionally, their preference is that the HBO sector focuses on the provision of short-cycle (two-year) degree that would provide additional training with a set of intermediate qualifications now lacking in the current hands education and training system.

In response to persistent concerns about a lack of differentiation, policymakers have authorised very limited initiatives permitting pilot schemes of differentiation in pricing and student selection. Quite naturally, the Ministry must operate within the limits of the political support it receives from government, and in the absence of wide political support only marginal policy adjustments available to a small number of institutions are possible. In addition, the Ministry has worked with employers and the HBO sector to introduce a new short-cycle qualification, which will add differentiation to mix of qualifications available to students.

Like *hogescholen* instructors should ideally remain in close contact with working life, knowledgeable observers with whom we met expressed concern that this ideal is frequently not achieved, and that many HBO lecturers – particularly those who have been teaching a long time – have lost contact with working life, and find it difficult to stay abreast of the changing knowledge base in their professional field.

The HBO system appears to offer far too little *flexible* provision – part-time, compressed delivery, dual learning, or other options. The Netherlands has adult education and training levels (16.9 participation rate for those 25-64) that are modestly above the EU-14 average, but well below those of the high-performing nations such as Finland, Denmark, and

Hogescholen remain closely joined to a local employment mission, and have not fully responded to the opportunities presented by European and global mobility of labour, the norm of European-wide professional certification, and the increased prospect of career changes throughout one's working life. None of our discussions with sectoral or institutional HBO

withstanding the binary division of labour in the Netherlands, it is a life that many institutions charged with providing *wetenschappelijk* jobs are in reality engaged in higher professional education - in the that their graduates will enter professional life, such as teaching or training, after the completion of their studies, rather than becoming researchers in universities, researchers in laboratories, or otherwise engaged in scientific work. One unintended consequence of a binary division of may be that research universities and the wider society neglect the ability obligations and performance of research universities.

Netherlands tertiary system has introduced *lectoren*, HBO-based faculty who are responsible for leading knowledge circles (*kenniskringen*) within their institution and wider professional community. Estimation of the HBO-Raad and the OCW this has been a successful one, evidence of which is furnished by an *effectmeting* (impact assessment) undertaken in 2006. The review team, however, takes a different view. We have two principal concerns about the *lectoren* initiative.

First, the processes by which *lectoren* posts are allocated among and within HBO institutions broadly disperse these resources. This limits the capacity of this initiative to build a critical mass of sufficient depth and expertise for HBOs to function more effectively as innovation partners with firms and non-profit organizations.

Second, we are concerned that the *lectoren* initiative has not been fully understood or exploited as a means by which to strengthen and vitalize the educational mission of HBO institutions. During our visit HBO institutions did not present us with a well-developed conception of how *lectoren* (and *kenniskringen*) might be used to develop teaching and practice-led research - as opposed to research-led teaching. By this we have in mind a distinctive model of HBO research that takes place in an applied setting, that involves undergraduate students, and results not in international peer-reviewed publications, but instead in expert improvements to professional practice, whether new pupil assessments in primary or secondary schools, or newly-customized information systems for the international flower retail industry.

We think that the wider social interests of the Netherlands would be well served by some HBO institutions developing greater capacities as

research (of the sort awarded through Finland's TEKES), through sabbaticals for HBO instructors to renew their professional ties and knowledge, and through a career system that evaluates and rewards professional engagement.

Recommendations

In light of the challenges described above, we propose three initiatives for consideration.

To address the weakness of the tertiary system with respect to flexible provision, we believe that much wider scope for alternative providers needs to be considered. We recognise that an *open bestel* initiative is underway. We think it likely that a sharp shift in flexible provision may require strong competition to traditional tertiary providers – including competition from for-profit providers of higher education that specialise in flexible provision. To this end, we think that a review committee, containing representatives from the OCW and NVAO, but also the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the CPB, should generate proposals for providing maximum market entry opportunities consistent with consumer protection, and explore the means by which to allow the full state subsidy (including institutional operating subsidy and student support) to be applied towards study at such a provider. The purpose of such an initiative is to create a dynamic in the system that is presently lacking.

Second, to strengthen professionally oriented bachelor education – in both the HBO and WO sectors that are in fact providing it – we recommend that collaborative arrangements and couplings of units from both sectors be strongly encouraged by the OCW. For example, while maintaining separate organisations – since these are necessary for distinctive HBO activities such as continuing education, short-cycle degrees, and flexibly accelerated study programmes, and research programmes and graduate instruction in the WO institution – joint programmes in study lines such as business, teaching, public administration and social services could be encouraged. These could be hosted by a separate organisation (e.g. college), and bring to bear the comparative expertise of HBO

the NVAO should provide an experimental waiver of regulatory restricts, applying an *ex post* assessment based upon a careful analysis of student evaluations, employer interviews, and labour market outcomes. For its part, the OCW should provide funding incentives (e.g. apply the more generous of the funding methodologies used for HBO and WO), and one-off funding, awarded on a competitive basis, to support the costs of such an initiative. In the long run, we anticipate that such an initiative would need to be permitted some opportunity to distinctive position itself in the system - with respect to nomenclature, pricing, and selection, so as to make itself a sustainable quality initiative.

Finally, we recommend that a disinterested and expert third party undertake the assessment of the *lectoren* initiative planned for 2008. In our view, the Netherlands CPB may be best suited to this role.

7. Research and Innovation

und

Three successive Dutch cabinets have expressed their commitment to a knowledge-based economy strategy and their desire to promote the Dutch knowledge economy as one of the most successful in Europe by 2010. This commitment has led to the setting of technology and innovation policy. In 2003 the white paper on human resources in science and technology (*Deltaplan beta en techniek*) was prepared as a joint effort of the Ministries (OECD, 2004b, p. 15). It promotes courses in science and technology at all levels of education and conducts a number of projects in education and innovation in order to promote the image of science and technology and stimulate regional action plans.

As noted in Chapter Three, in September 2003 the cross-Ministry Knowledge Economy Platform, chaired by the Prime Minister, was established in order to develop strategic plans for promoting the Dutch knowledge economy and technology innovation. The mission of the Innovation Platform is ‘to enhance the innovation potential of the Netherlands in order to secure a leading role for this country in the European knowledge economy of 2010’, achieved by re-establishing ‘values such as excellence, ambition and entrepreneurship’. Like many other government initiatives in this field, the Knowledge Economy Platform is intended to stimulate co-operation between businesses and knowledge-creating institutions. Its 18 members are mostly drawn from the business community and knowledge institutions. The platform was taken from Finnish cabinet-level Science and Technology Policy Council. However there is an important difference in that the Dutch Knowledge Economy Platform does not have a permanent legal status.

In recent years R&D investment in the Netherlands has not moved in a

at 1.0% was well below the OECD average of 1.5% (OECD, 2004c; van den Broek *et al.*, 2004 and 2006).

Moreover, even in the public sector investment in R&D has declined, from 0.7% of GDP in 1998 to 0.77% in 2002 (OCW, 2006b, p. 123).

As noted in Chapter Three, the Netherlands is strong in basic research and has an excellent record in scientific publication. Scientific articles per researcher are 6th highest in the OECD (*OECD Science, Technology and Innovation Scoreboard 2005*) and in 2002-2003 its average citation score was above the world average in 2000-2003 (NOWT, 2005, p. 18; see also van den Broek *et al.*, 2004, p. 84). The main share of research articles, 69%, is produced by scientists and scholars employed at the 13 research intensive universities (NOWT, *ibid.*, p. 17). The Netherlands ranks number three in a set of benchmark countries with an average output of almost one publication per researcher per year in the public sector (NOWT, *ibid.*, p. 17). Private sector researchers in the Netherlands are also highly productive, in large part to the publication output of the corporate laboratories of high-tech multinational enterprises, especially Philips whose central research laboratories are located in Eindhoven. The situation may change in the future because some of these central laboratories are being dismantled.

The Netherlands ranks well on EPO high-tech patent applications. It is second after Finland in a comparison of 21 countries (OECD, 2005b), and is about average in USPTO high-tech patents granted. Overall, the Netherlands has been assessed to have an excellent record in knowledge creation but a mediocre one in innovation, defined as successful commercialization and application of new knowledge in new products and/or processes. As noted, this profile is referred to as the 'Dutch paradox'. The proportion of innovative enterprises that co-operate with higher education institutions and with research institutes is relatively low in the Netherlands compared with other EU15 countries, though it has increased significantly in the 2000s (OCW, 2004a; van Steen *et al.*, 2006). A smaller proportion of innovative Dutch manufacturing companies considers universities an important supplier of knowledge than is the case in Europe as a whole when compared with 4% average according to OECD, 2003, p. 9).

The low level of Business Enterprise Research and Development can be explained in part with reference to the industrial structure of the country. First, the share of services within the economy is relatively high and the share of high intensive R&D manufacturing relatively low. Second,

tively small. Despite the excellence of university research the Netherlands is not attracting foreign enterprises to invest in R&D on a significant scale. Some anecdotal evidence provided to the review team also indicated that an increasing proportion of Dutch-owned multinational R&D is taking place abroad. This would be consistent with the general trend towards internationalisation of R&D, but it is noted that the Ministry of Economic Affairs finds that ‘there is no evidence ... that large Dutch enterprises are relocating R&D to foreign countries’ (Ministry for Economic Affairs, 2006, pp. 36-37).

In 2005 only seven Netherlands-based companies spent more than 100 million on R&D. Philips is much the largest player at 1 001 million, followed by Azko Nobel (EUR 425 million), ASML at 348 million and Shell at 239 million (*Top 30 Bedrijfs-R&D in Nederland* 2006, data supplied by VNO-NCW). Table 7.1 lists the top ten companies:

Principal Netherlands-based company expenditure on R&D in 2005

Company and location	R&D spending 2005
	million EUR
Philips, Eindhoven	1 001
Azko Nobel, Arnhem	425
ASML, Veldhoven	348
Shell, Amsterdam/Rijswijk	239
DSM, Geleen/Delft	163
Unilver, Vlaardingen	140
Oce, Venlo	130
Thales, Hengelo	63
Corus, Umuideren	62
Stork, Naarden	61

Source: VNO-NCW

Although the share of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in R&D has increased, only a small portion of SMEs conduct R&D. It is estimated that only 28% of SMEs have their own R&D unit, 28% carry out development, and only 10% apply new knowledge and can be innovative (source: Joke van der Vlist, VNO-NCW).

004, p. 95). The problem is partly one of relative incentives given the of the economy on other fronts. As long as Dutch entrepreneurs e revenues in successful service-sector businesses with low R&D y they are unlikely to switch into R&D applications involving large sts, long lead times and uncertainty.

national research systems are faced with the challenge of global tion between nations in relation to what has become a semi- ed worldwide research system. The Netherlands faces particular ies in securing national objectives and even in imposing a national emplate. As noted university-industry co-operation in R&D depends small number of few multinational firms that are only partly ands-based. To the extent that these Dutch multinationals expand artnerships with universities around the world there are fewer nities for Dutch universities.

processes of economic, political and educational Europeanisation e a third, regional dimension with possibilities for university R&D. e European Research Area has catalysed new mechanisms of integration he European research landscape. These include consortia among artners and emerging mechanisms for joint research funding by funding agencies. These trends create new possibilities for the ment of research capabilities in higher education institutions while osing them to additional competition. Further, and significantly he 'Dutch paradox', European projects also provide an important al medium for university-industry collaboration. Here the industry may be located in countries outside the Netherlands and the dge economy benefits may flow outside the country but remain in . At this point both university research, and the university-industry ship, are not narrowly embedded in the Dutch national policy but operate within a much wider setting.

likely that in future years the European dimension will increasingly he conduct and utility of research conducted in Dutch higher on, will alter incentives and policy objectives and will prompt a ng of programmes designed to bring universities and industry closer t. However, the review team was unable to access data on the extent n Dutch research organizations and enterprises currently participate ean schemes so as to more closely investigate this emerging and mative area. There was no indication that these challenges were

ties. It supports research programmes, individuals, investments in equipment and facilities, and travel and international cooperation (van Steen 2004, pp. 19-20). Together with the Royal Academy of Sciences (KNAW), it is the main source of Stream 2 funding to universities, which as mentioned in Chapter Three, is awarded competitively according to academic excellence. The NWO has proved its ability to think and act strategically so as to support higher education research in the Netherlands. It is an important asset.

NWO recently released a strategy for its activities in 2007-2010, based on three policy stances: the promotion of excellence, and better utilization of knowledge to strengthen societal and technological innovation. The plan includes doubling the funds of NWO as part of national fulfilment of the 2020 goals. The NWO already promotes research excellence and promotion of knowledge. The allocation of project money by using peer review is an example of the former; while the Technology Foundation STW, part of the NWO, is an example of the latter. The Foundation supports applied research in science and technology. It actively supports knowledge utilization through users' committees. For each project a users' committee is appointed, which closely monitors the progress of the project and advises the STW Board especially in relation to utilization of the results. These committees include as members business enterprise representatives. The committees serve as a forum for communication, and additionally, as an instrument of utilization, if an enterprise is prepared to utilize the results commercially. NWO will also collaborate with business in the new SmartMix scheme (see below).

Schemes for university-industry co-operation have a dual purpose: to promote the utilisation of scientific research results in the development of products or processes and to enhance the ability to generate new scientific research questions emerging from innovation activities. The Dutch government has launched a significant number of such schemes. Some date from the early 80s. The schemes are based on different approaches:

Programme-based schemes such as the Leading Technological Institutes, Innovation-Oriented Research Programmes and public-private programmes in specific fields such as genomics and catalysis;

Applied research institutes such as TNO, the agricultural research

ministries. The targeted grant from the Ministry of Economic Affairs has the condition of co-funding by businesses. TNO has 24 knowledge centres in which it co-operates with universities and businesses and 50 university professors work in part-time positions at TNO. There are project-based schemes for R&D co-operation with special attention to SMEs. The group of large technological institutes consists of five specialised organisations conducting applied research and related activities in specific fields. The main funding scheme is contract funding by public and private parties.

Support for knowledge infrastructures, includes a scheme to subsidise knowledge infrastructures in public-private consortia in areas of societal importance.

A useful discussion of Dutch schemes to promote public-private partnerships is provided in a report prepared by the OECD (OECD, 2003). Recent measures to promote public-private co-operation include the SenterNovem scheme. This is a 100 million Euro scheme that commences in 2007 with the objective of promoting university-industry collaboration. SenterNovem, a intermediary organization under the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the research council funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, will manage it.

These schemes to promote the utilisation of research results specifically focus on the improvement of knowledge utilisation in SMEs. These schemes are noteworthy, reflecting a willingness to find solutions to problems that have been detected. With the so-called “knowledge voucher” SMEs can buy research services from universities and from other types of research institutions, including large firms, ‘in order to improve the innovation of products, processes, products and services’ (Background Report, p. 27). The value of the “knowledge voucher” is EUR 7 500, of which SMEs should contribute one third themselves. As of 2006, there will also be smaller knowledge vouchers representing a value of EUR 2 500 which stimulates SMEs to become acquainted with research institutes (‘sniffing vouchers’) (van den Broek *et al.*, 2006, p. 68). At the commencement of the scheme the number of vouchers was 100. Following initial demand it was increased to 1000. ‘Many employers have been using this subsidy and relations with research institutes have been intensified’ (Background Report, p. 28).

Another example is the RAAK-regulation, the Regional Action and Plan for Knowledge Innovation. This involves EUR 6.8 million per

In addition the HBOs have been provided with *lectoren*. This scheme began in 2001; in 2006 it was funded at the level of 14.4 million and this will increase to EUR 50 million in 2007. The number of posts has grown rapidly, from 18 in 2002 to 207 in 2005 and now (Background Report, p. 12), and the programme has attracted much attention. *Lectoren* are to respond to the knowledge needs of SMEs and to enhance research skills and capabilities in HBOs by conducting research to which faculty are recruited on a part-time basis. Though only 5% of teaching staff in HBOs now holds doctorates, this proportion will increase due in part to the *lectoren* scheme. Individual lecturers are asked to create ‘knowledge circles’ with the SMEs with which they co-operate in the projects. RAAK programme money is typically used in these

the *lectoren* programme appears to be advancing its aims, though it has caused some concern that there is little cooperation between the *lectoren* and research universities. In future it will extend the stimulation of research activities in the HBO sector. ‘From 2007 onwards HBOs will receive funds for development and application, or applied research, as a top-up of payment for the lectoren’ (Background Report, p. 66).

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Overall scientific performance and knowledge production in the Netherlands is very good, sustained by a culture of excellence and excellent activity within worldwide research systems. International review agencies have conducted periodic reviews of research excellence since the 1980s and these reviews have helped to shape priorities. Bad reviews have led to retrenchment of activities. This has conveyed a strong signal of the importance of excellence that has no doubt influenced the behaviour of individual researchers and institutions. The review team emphasises the value of this kind of quality control and recommends its continuation. Likewise national reviews since the early 1990s, conducted so as to determine allocations of the label ‘excellent research schools’, have reinforced the drive to genuine excellence even though no financial incentives are involved (Sonneveld and Oost, 2006). Researchers are at least as strongly motivated by peer respect and esteem as by revenues.

Overall, the Dutch research system is relatively internationalised. In

countries in reasonable numbers and many universities have enrolled large numbers of foreign research students and offered positions to post-doctoral scholars. This indicates the attractiveness of the Dutch system despite immigration barriers. In addition Dutch students and researchers are encouraged to spend time abroad especially at the postdoctoral level.

The review team formed the view that national policies, programmes and coordination in the area of research and innovation might be stronger than national policies in most other areas. Policies on research and innovation appear to be less subject to short term politicisation, are more likely to involve effective consultation, and are more likely to make use of academic expertise and data gathering in the processes of planning and design.

Issues

Although the overall graduation rate in research degrees in the Netherlands, 1.4% of population in 2004, is competitive in relation to the average of 1.3 (OECD, 2006a, p. 58), the position in science and technology is less good. Among 25-34 year olds the number of doctorates in science fields in the Netherlands is 0.4% of population compared to 1.5 in Germany and 0.9 in the USA and the UK (OCW, 2006d, p. 7). The low total number of researchers per thousand workforce suggests a relatively low level of R&D in the Netherlands. In 2004 there were 5.2 in the Netherlands compared with 6.6 in Germany and France, 10.1 for Sweden and 13.7 for the USA.

In addition, 'the Netherlands has not been very successful in attracting and retaining foreign human resources in science and technology (HRST). Although HRST immigration flows are relatively low, but such immigrants tend not to stay in the Netherlands, regarding it as a stepping-stone to other destinations' (OECD, 2006b, p. 117). (Problems of attracting and retaining foreign faculty and researchers in the context of immigration issues and other problems are discussed further in Chapter Nine).

These problems are likely to worsen unless corrective action is taken. The review team noted problems in the career system in universities. Most researchers seem to follow a path-dependent course, and there is little scope for competitive payments. The nation lacks a robust internal market for talent

employment has accumulated a significant disincentive effect, so enough students studying science at school imagine for themselves a in research. Long lag times before younger faculty have the nity to develop their own research programmes without being ed by a senior professor are another factor. In the USA promising ers are able to shape their own pathways at an earlier stage. The rogrammes, particularly the Veni and Vidi awards, have attempted ess this and are a step in the right direction, as universities are to give some kind of guaranteed position to awardees. However, rgeted initiatives do not sufficiently address the underlying career s facing most young researchers in the Dutch university career

Recommendations

Committee on the dynamics of university research concluded that raction between the university research system and non-university centres is neither better nor worse than in other – comparable – s', though it also remarked that 'existing distrust between nment, universities and companies' should be eliminated. It suggested iversities should abandon their defensive positions and clearly te their contribution to the future of the Netherlands' (van Steen 006, p. 28). The OECD team endorses these remarks, which would ant to most national innovation systems.

ough Dutch universities exhibit a strong orientation to excellence ht need to become more strategically focused. There is a need to understand the institutional conditions under which 'peaks' of ce thrive, as opposed to 'mounds'. As suggested in Chapter Three it that universities carrying front rank research capacity across many es provide the best environment for high performance, especially only in cross-disciplinary activities. In addition such universities can se both the status power and the resource power sufficient to attract d the highest calibre scholar-researchers and doctoral students. This o the potential offered by national policies designed to elevate a mber of universities to a stronger position within the Shanghai Jiao nking.

noted in Chapter Three, increasing the share of research support that

on (Stream 2) within the research funding system be increased so as to ensure excellence and concentration - provided that this increase is accompanied by a change to Stream 2 allocations so as to ensure that these cover a higher proportion of research costs. At present universities must match every one euro in research subsidy they receive in Streams 2 and 3 with 0.5 cents of matching funding from the basic grant (AWT, 2005, p. 13). Universities are 'too successful' at raising funding determined by competition and excellence and since they find themselves matching at more than one to one euro in Stream 2, this creates a disincentive to engage in such research, and also reduces the scope for university determined research initiatives including in the humanities and social sciences. These problems are now widely recognised within government and the research organisations (*Round Report*, p. 66).

Nevertheless such an increase in the role of Stream 2 funding should be considered cautiously. It is emphasised that if policy is to increase the focus on funding based on competition and excellence (in a research funding system that is already competitive) it is of the utmost importance that an internal balance between foundation funding and variable funding is maintained, in order to ensure that the global strength of Dutch universities in research is sustained and enhanced. In the term used by AWT, university research is most usefully considered as an 'asset', as a form of intellectual capacity with open-ended long term potential, with utilities that cannot always be predicted in advance, rather than as a set of 'products' (AWT, 2005). Maintaining this asset requires a solid foundation derived from the basic funding in Stream 1. Policy approaches that would reduce the research supported by Stream 1, attempt to prescribe research activity in a way that would depart from peer definition of excellence, would be unwise.

Currently Stream 2 funding would cover the full additional costs of the research with a concurrent reduction in that proportion of Stream 1 funding that is variable. It would be better if policy moved in that direction. This is important given that it is unclear that institutions actually allocate all Stream 1 monies to research, as these monies are incorporated into block grants from government (in that respect the Streams 1-3 formula overestimates the extent of public support for research). If budgetary pressures increase, a growing part of Stream 1 funding will be diverted off for other purposes.

ties do not seem to have the strategic capabilities to plan and implement change.

When a change in national research funding should be followed by the application of similar principles in the internal resource allocation of universities themselves. According to evidence presented to the review, present internal allocations typically follow previous allocations. A new Stream 2 would enable greater concentration ('focus and more precise and extensive rewards for excellence; and the shaping of a national division of labour between research universities.

It is vital to attract talented students to science and technology fields and to encourage researchers in science and technology in order to help renew the research workforce, as well as for developing innovation and excellence. Attracting direct investments in research and development is related to a university's ability to supply trained scientists and engineers for research jobs. The Innovation Research Incentives Scheme developed under the aegis of the Department of Education provides three programmes of grants titled respectively Veni for doctoral awards, Vidi for early mid career personnel, and Vici for senior researchers. The primary focus of the scheme, as well as developing research projects, is to attract younger researchers to research careers and to hold them before they have obtained tenure (Vidi) and to provide career opportunities for them through the teams established by senior researchers (Vici). (van Steen *et al.*, 2004, p. 52). The scheme has been well received and could be usefully expanded.

There are a variety of mechanisms through which university research is valorised. These include the traditional function of training, public-private partnerships, spin-off formation, and patents & licensing. The review team did not obtain information of the effectiveness of intellectual property rights regulations or any systematic information of the formation of spin-off firms from university research. However it was noted that some institutions house on-campus spin-off firms co-operating with the institution. Whether these provisions are effective for promoting innovation is not known. However, the review team emphasises the importance of adequate conditions for the utilisation and the commercialization of research results via the formation and growth of spin-off firms.

It is noted there are a number of programmes and mechanisms designed to facilitate the commercialization of university research results.

atives to promote university-private partnerships. It appears that the e has been a system that is not easy or transparent for stakeholders. ew recommends that the system be simplified and made more easily or potential research partners.

way to unify and systematise the policy contribution of the different ents in the system, is to introduce a common set of principles that cut ne different programmes that further public-private partnerships. For e, in Finland large companies can get Tekes¹⁴ funding for their R&D provided that those projects fulfil at least one of the five standard One criterion is cooperation with SMEs or research organisations ities or public research institutes), and another criterion is onal cooperation. This means that government does not have to e a separate new programme every time it wants to advance specific nstead it can tweak the general principles operating across all mes. It is possible that the 'Innovation omnibus' being developed Ministry of Economic Affairs in relation to its programmes in on will help to provide such a framework (van Steen *et al.*, 2006, It is hoped that the 'omnibus' will assist the clarification, ency, coordination and targeting of what has become a complex of support for innovation.

as been expected that the knowledge needs of SMEs should be met by the HBOs. Though there are good grounds to assume that rtnerships between HBOs and SMEs have great potential, the notion E needs will be sufficiently served by HBOs is based on a limited of SME needs. The question suggested here is, have the knowledge of high-tech SMEs been adequately addressed? The formation of ty spinoffs in areas of emerging new technologies is a valuable route isation of university research, and provides an example of SMEs ghly sophisticated knowledge needs. The review team received very ormation on how the system works in this respect.

programme to develop the research capabilities of HBOs through ren system is a sensible initiative - provided that these resources are towards developing a research role that *enriches professional on* rather than a pale imitation of basic research in the WOs. r it is important to note that the resources required to properly the research capacities of HBOs are very substantial given that orts almost start from scratch. In this context the *lectoren* system is

s suggests that it would be advisable to target resources and expand them very selectively through a bid-based system oriented to the promotion of research in the HBOs. The aim would be to create attractive research environments and promote strategic thinking in HBOs. There should be an incremental building up of research capacities. In this regard, HBOs should obtain resources and abilities to attract young, well-trained people to start their research programmes. These centres should have a regional orientation and should be able to attract external money. This report will not recommend who should make the decisions on the competitive bids, but it is noted that a stakeholder organisation has structural problems in attempting to perform such a task.

The Innovation Platform was established in 2003 as a coordinating body to propose strategic plans in the promotion of the Dutch knowledge economy. This Platform has been informal and dependent on the personal commitment of the Prime Minister. Both Dutch Higher Education and the Dutch research and innovation system are faced with many difficulties and ambitious objectives related to focus and mass in research, research excellence, utilisation of research results, the development of new resources and the enhancement of public awareness. There is a continuing need for a coordinating platform with sufficient status and authority to make a difference. This suggests that the Innovation Platform should be formalized and made permanent.

The Platform in turn would provide a continuing forum in which important stakeholders could discuss, and reach consensus on the different future scenarios. Some of the reforms proposed here are not feasible in the absence of a strong commitment by the stakeholders. There is a need to increase trust between social stakeholders towards each other, and a joint forum is an important means towards this end. The review recommends that the original mandate of the Platform, that of the Science and Technology Policy Council, should be considered more fully. In addition, there is a continuing need for co-operation and coordination within government. This suggests that it would be valuable to add the Minister of Finance to the other members in the Platform, and perhaps other ministers with an interest in research activities.

Quality Assurance and Quality Enhancement

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fifteen years until 2002, the quality assurance process for higher education in the Netherlands was a system of peer review. This included a self-assessment document prepared by the institution, followed by a site visit by a group of peers organised either by the Association of Universities (VU) or the Association of Hogescholen, depending on type of institution. The results of this process on each discipline were made public and the Minister had the right to step in if there were identified problems that might require government intervention. It was argued that this process was focused less on quality assurance and more on the improvement of programmes.

However, whilst the reports were published, many felt that the process was not sufficiently independent or objective. Moreover possible interventions were limited to publicly funded institutions.

When the Netherlands introduced the Bachelor and Masters degrees, there was a change in the quality assurance process, with a movement towards external accreditation of programmes to reflect the wider international context. The stated aim for accreditation was to provide assurance to all stakeholders in the quality and standards of the awards offered in all higher education institutions delivering Netherlands awards. In part national accreditation was implemented in response to the 1999 Bologna Declaration which identified certain expectations of higher education institutions, including quality assurance processes.

The Accreditation Organisation of The Netherlands and Flanders (VU) was established by law as the accrediting body, with responsibility for accreditation of all bachelors and masters programmes from publicly funded institutions and private institutions wishing to offer degree

which act as assessors of institutional applications prior to submission to NVAO. VBIs develop their own frames of reference for conducting the assessment of each application for accreditation, evaluating applications against the accreditation criteria. One such mechanism used by a VBI focuses in the first instance on the institution as a whole, looking at the programme to be accredited. Each institution chooses one or more VBIs to suit its own requirements although for historical reasons HBOs are more likely to ask the National Qualifications Agency (NVAO) which originated with the HBO-Raad, and universities the Quality Assurance Netherlands Universities (QANU) which developed from the Dutch university branch organisation. There are also organisations that have been set up as VBIs, some of which are consultancies with experience in other sectors of higher education such as accountancy and management. VBIs are audited by NVAO every two years or so to ensure that they are operating independently. NVAO also has annual meetings of all the VBIs to discuss issues of mutual interest such as the report writing structure.

A programme is accredited every six years. The criteria used to assess a submission for accreditation are aims and objectives, programme, quality of staff, facilities and provisions.

The accreditation process for existing programmes starts with an internal management review followed by the production of a self-assessment report by the institution. This self-assessment is submitted to the VBI along with supporting documentation. The institution can ask for special quality features to be considered which may result in the report stating that the institution indeed has special features. A team of assessors visits the institution and the VBI who will meet with staff and students to evaluate the institution.

When the process has been completed the VBI makes a recommendation to NVAO explaining how their view is based on the facts, the VBI's assessment of the facts and the assessment of the degree course on the basis of the NVAO accreditation framework and the VBI's own frame of reference (NVAO guide, 2006)

When a submission has been received by NVAO, it is committed to making its decision within three months. For new programmes the VBI takes a decision on the macro efficiency as a next step: The unfunded submissions are sent to the Ministry for a 'macro-efficiency' review to establish whether or not the programme will provide

test that an institution takes a little longer to develop a submission if it thinks that it will not be successful. It has been proposed that the ‘macro-policy’ decision for new programmes will be made prior to the accreditation decision so that the expense of accreditation is not incurred if the Ministry rejects the programme; however, legislation containing this proposal was withdrawn from parliamentary consideration.

Within the Ministry there is an inspectorate that has responsibility for quality assurance of education within the Netherlands. It is mainly concerned with the oversight of legal matters. The number of officers with responsibility for quality assurance of education has reduced since accreditation was introduced, suggesting a reduced role for the Inspectorate with respect of higher education. However, the Inspectorate does monitor some themes in higher education, for example assessment, and also has the responsibility for intervening to review programmes or institutions if problems are identified. The Inspectorate produces an annual report that provides a summary of quality assurance matters across the whole sector, in addition to publishing thematic reports on themes, programmes and institutions as appropriate. The way in which problems with a particular programme or institution is identified was described to the team by the Inspectorate as being as a result of student complaints, staff complaints and/or press reports. In one particular case the impetus for the special report was a combination of complaints and media coverage.

Students have an opportunity to be involved in an annual overview of all programmes in tertiary education aimed at future students. For this purpose students are asked to complete a questionnaire to assess the quality of their programmes in a standard format.

The information, together with information from external peer reviews obtained in the process of accreditation, is made available in both Dutch and English, at the website *studiekeuze123*.

Quality assurance for research was not changed in 2002. It is organised through the ‘standards evaluation protocol for public research organisations’ arranged by the branch organisations of the universities themselves. The protocol obliges all universities to evaluate their research activities every three years. Additionally, an independent external committee assesses research activities and the outcomes of the external reviews are made

essional field in which graduates of the course are to be employed
 ively involved in the internal quality assurance.

he course of its visits to institutions, in discussions about internal
 assurance processes, the review team heard about how students are
 d in the internal approval of new programmes and sit on internal
 committees assisting in the development and oversight of the
 on. It also heard that employers from appropriate fields are involved
 e development in advisory capacities. The team was told that many
 ave adopted the EFQM model of internal quality assurance that is an
 nt development and has assisted the HBOs to achieve a clearer view
 ay in which they conduct their business. The universities have not
 the same model in the same way, but have, over a long period of
 eveloped mechanisms to deal with documentation and data to assist
 decision-making.

s clear that successful accreditation can provide assurance that
 ons meet the criteria that cover all aspects of quality assurance
 es, and assure the coherence of the programme itself. In respect of
 dards of awards the criterion on 'results' requires institutions to
 at:

Level has been achieved

- The final qualifications that have been achieved correspond to the targets set for the final qualifications in level, orientation and domain specific requirements.

Results of teaching

- To measure the results of teaching target figures have been set in comparison with relevant other courses.
- The results of teaching meet these targets.

institution is therefore expected to have in place methods to ensure
 dents achieve the expected outcomes of the course.

however, the review team was told that there is no recognised and
 method of ensuring the security and independence of the marking or
 g process. The tutor who set the assessment can undertake the
 of student work. There is no expectation that the work might be
 to second or blind marking as a requirement of the process. The final

tution, rather than making an objective decision based on available evidence. Whilst there is no evidence that anything other than objective and independent decisions are being made, the perception that there may be external influences on the final decision-making means that there is a need to assure all stakeholders that the final awards given are fair and reasonable.

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There are considerable strengths in the national quality assurance system. The system of quality assurance has evolved to meet needs and in the process is learning from experience. It appears that when new needs arise the system has the personnel capacity, flexibility and good will to respond effectively. NVAO and the institutions have now accumulated significant expertise.

Criteria that are considered at each accreditation event would appear to focus on the right areas to provide assurance to all stakeholders that quality standards are in place. In 2005, it was reported by the VBI – in its overview report – that of the 55 accreditation institutions they checked, of some facets that were assessed as 'sufficient' in both HBO and universities, the key reasons were: management and control (18%), measures to improve quality (15%), efficiency of education (13%), volume of staff (9%), and, relationship between goals and the programme (9%).

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The review team heard from institutions that the process was very costly both in terms of the amount of resource that was required to develop the self-assessment document, and the charges imposed by the VBI. Costs quoted ranged from EUR 50 000 for one programme in a small institution, to EUR 500 000 for all programmes in one faculty to be accredited. The amount of resource to be put into the development of the accreditation will inevitably vary depending on the programme and the institution.

The 'macro-efficiency' test by the Ministry is a decision designed to

meaningful diversity in a discipline enhances the real options on offer. Institutions should be free to take the risks of offering such programmes. In a grant based funding system it is they who bear the cost of such programmes if students do not respond in sufficient numbers. In addition, in a knowledge economy in which participation is universally beneficial there is no case for saying that the subject matter of the degree might be of lesser value than encouraging students to higher-level study.

Recommendations

The review team heard from higher education institutions that the accreditation process as originally devised and interpreted up to early 2006 was considered overly bureaucratic with too much emphasis on paperwork rather than a focus on enhancing the institution or the programme. Action has already been taken to try and reduce the demands of the process and to streamline the bureaucracy. However, the team also heard that in at least one institution there have been identified benefits flowing from the development of a self-assessment document and the institution considered that the process has helped them to evaluate their own provision. Whilst these developmental aspects are very important, and a key outcome from the self-assessment process, it is likely that the benefits will only be accrued if the process is undertaken. In a different institution the team heard that because of the provision of one school accredited, the financial commitment was such that no new programmes would be developed in the current period of accreditation.

It appears that the benefits to institutions flowing from the accreditation process will reduce over time and the associated bureaucracy will outweigh the potential developmental benefits. There is also the risk that new programme developments will be limited. Experience in other countries suggests that institutions will quickly learn how to achieve successful accreditations without necessarily addressing all the necessary detail, and what should be a developmental process into a formulaic assessment.

There has been discussion between the NVAO, the Government and the higher education sector about what is to happen at the end of the six-year accreditation cycle. The view among higher education institutions is that there should be a move to institutional accreditation. There is much

Importantly, members of parliament show little enthusiasm for moving to institutional accreditation, and a recent proposal to do so has been withdrawn from parliamentary consideration.

In the Netherlands were to reconsider an institutional accreditation system, the NVAO would want to consider adopting methods different to the current system for identifying particular problems with programmes. Whilst the current system as identified in this way may provide the basis for undertaking targeted reviews, there is a risk that individuals will be encouraged to pursue minor grievances that may not be soundly based. The review team would recommend that as the processes for institutional accreditation and the current system develop, there would be benefit in identifying more transparent criteria for generating specific reviews.

Given that the accreditation process is expensive for institutions one of the discussion points throughout the visit of the review team was how to make the most of the resources available to the sector. There are two areas where there might be benefit in reconsidering the process to address the matter of costs.

First, as it is likely that most of the beneficial aspects of accreditation have already been achieved, both in terms of institutional activity and in terms of accreditation; it may be possible to think of moving to a system of institutional accreditation.

Second, a further cost-saving element might be reconsideration of the role of the VBIs. As commercial organisations the VBIs are, quite naturally, looking to make a profit from the process. It is compulsory for institutions to pay VBIs for their work towards accreditation and this cost inevitably comes from public funding. It appears to be an anomaly that the recipients of profit from accreditation are commercial companies. It is worth considering whether NVAO could appoint its own assessors to develop a method of assessing institutions not requiring the involvement of commercial companies. This would have the added benefit that if NVAO appointed assessors directly, the focus of the process could be more clearly on peer review which is more familiar to those in higher education institutions. Further, such a procedure would streamline the whole process. It would mean that decisions would need to be made only once rather than, at present, twice, once by the VBI and once by NVAO.

In addition, it may be useful to consider the wider involvement of

the country is of a similar standard, and would have the benefit of giving assurance to staff and students that internal pressures have not influenced the committees. Some countries have adopted a system of examiners (for example the UK).

Further enhancement to the internal quality assurance procedures of education institutions could be the involvement of stakeholders in internal development and review processes. Whilst the team heard that institutions where the provision is largely vocational, employers are involved in the development of new awards, there was little evidence to suggest that external independent input was sought more generally. As institutions take more responsibility for their own awards, it may be useful to put in place an encouragement towards the greater involvement of stakeholders in developing and reviewing awards in all disciplines. The advantage of such involvement would be to provide an objective view of what is in place and would spread good practice. Such individuals could be specialists from other higher education institutions, from industry, public services or international experts, all of whom would provide a different perspective on the way in which standards are set and maintained. The areas that would benefit from such an external view could range from curriculum development to course monitoring and periodic review, as well as the use of other activities such as learning resources.

9. *The International Dimension*

und

partmental statements and the websites of individual institutions
se commitments to comparative worldwide standing, the
onal orientation of curricula and the cross-border mobility of
. In practice the engagement with internationalisation is not as
al as this suggests.

t, as in all national systems, some Dutch tertiary institutions exhibit
y or solely local orientation and are not particularly national in focus,
e global. In itself this is no problem, being typical of all national
on systems. Second, and more problematically, in the national system
a more broadly based ambivalence towards the global dimension.

ary education shares the two-sided relationship with the rest of the
that is distinctive of Dutch economy and society. This relationship
ped in the building of an internationally competent trading nation
o the present global era. In the 16th and 17th centuries Dutch
onalisation was profound for its time. At that time, cross-border
ships were mostly conducted at points of exchange in the national
zone, and the central institutions of national life were readily
ined from global influences. In the present period, characterised by
ic global networking and frequent travel, global connections are not
the border but run through the national heartland. This requires an
onalisation of a different kind in which varied cultures are in
ty within common systems.

legacy of the old relationship with the outside world is
ctory. On one hand, higher education in the Netherlands can exhibit
level of international awareness, openness, engagement and

effectiveness at this time in any nation. Without losing confidence in own distinctive Dutch strengths and a sense of core national project, not just economically open to the rest of the world but fully socially and culturally open as well. In that respect they can compete on equal terms in the world and have moved ahead of national policy makers to realise the impact of Dutch education and research on the global stage. On the other hand, in both institutions and government there can be real international curiosity and awareness in which the global dimension is not blocked out.

The personnel exhibit a 'business as usual' mentality amid the fast changing world environment. When people are in this frame of mind, the significance of global competition for knowledge intensive education is not grasped, and opportunities to develop Dutch institutions and internationally relevant institutions (especially in the HBO sector) are missed. This is one reason why the need to hold local faculty stars or recruit them back from abroad is not always recognised, and not enough attention is given to how to make Dutch tertiary education more attractive to international faculty and students. Despite the long association with the islands of Indonesia, and the excellence of Dutch university research in relation to that complex and geo-strategically significant nation, Dutch educational links with Indonesia are surprisingly sparse. It is interesting to reflect on the lack of engagement with Indonesian education to the relatively close national ties between on one hand the UK, on the other hand the South East Asian countries, Malaysia and Singapore. However, recent policy developments, such as *Koers op Kwaliteit*, signal a rising interest in Southeast Asia and seven of the country's ten priority countries identified in the strategy are located in South or East Asia (China, India, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, Taiwan, and Vietnam). Additionally, Netherlands Educational Offices have been opened in Indonesia, China, Taiwan, and Thailand (with a July 1, 2007 opening planned for a Thailand office).

The global standing of Dutch universities is not a product of marketing. Dutch institutions are modest in promoting themselves internationally as such, although some individual academic units and research groups are effective. Rather this global standing has been earned solely by individual achievements. Dutch research quality is often outstanding and in many areas Dutch universities are only short of the peak of universities in the USA and UK. Here the longstanding Dutch commitment to excellence in research and scholarship has paid global dividends. Further

of and substantial resources with which to extend international student mobility. Certainly Dutch universities and to a lesser extent the HBOs are already attractive to foreign students, particularly at the Masters and PhD levels, and could attract many more.

Although Dutch students make good use of the ERASMUS schemes for shorter term mobility, when both numbers and duration of stay are taken into account, about three times as many foreign students come to the Netherlands to study as Dutch students going abroad. In Europe the Netherlands is the sixth most important destination for foreign students, well behind Spain, France, the UK, Germany and Italy. However, the Netherlands has a presence in the global market in foreign student mobility, but a lesser one in quantity terms, being the eighth largest provider (data supplied by Ministry of Education Culture and Science). In 2002-2003 an estimated 37 000 foreign students were enrolled in public and accredited private institutions. Nearly half were from other European nations, including 22% from Germany, 10% Belgium, 5% Spain and 10% from the UK. Another 10% were from Morocco, 5% from each of Turkey and Iran, 4% China and 3% Indonesia. The 2004 proportion of all foreign students in degree granting institutions who were foreign students was 4.0%, which was significantly below the OECD average of 8.0% and the EU19 average of 6.8%. The growth of foreign student numbers in Netherlands higher education since 2000 was 52%, the same as for the OECD as a whole (OECD, 2006a, p. 303).

Foreign students tend to play the largest role in Dutch universities at the postgraduate stage. For example at Technical University Delft in 2005, 53% of doctoral students (663 persons) and 27% of all Masters students (835) were foreign students compared to 6% (648) at Bachelor level (data supplied by Wageningen Vintges, TU Delft Faculty of Engineering, 1 May, 2006). The majority of Dutch Masters programmes are offered in English. About 20% of doctoral students are foreign students (Background Report, p. 86) and many prepare their dissertations in either Dutch or English. Foreign student entry is very significant in some disciplines; for example approximately 50% of doctoral students in physics, and in fields such as astronomy in some universities the ratio is higher.

Whereas the Netherlands is successful in holding as knowledge workers foreign students originating from Eastern European nations after they have studied in the Netherlands, it appears to be less successful than the USA,

language postgraduate programmes. Tuition charges for EU students under 30 years of age are EUR 1 445 compared to a minimum of EUR 250 in the UK. In addition many EU students are eligible for a rebate of EUR 1 000 and so pay only EUR 500 for tuition in the Netherlands. Non-EU student tuition charges are much higher in the Netherlands but competitive vis-à-vis the USA and UK. A two-year Masters of Science in Chemical Engineering at Delft University of Technology, which Dutch citizens pay EUR 1 445, costs a non-EU citizen EUR 8 150 (data from the Observatory on Borderless Education, 2006).

On the other hand there is a relatively small number of doctoral scholarships for foreign students, in part because the predominant model of higher education is employment rather than scholarship based. Perhaps university personnel are more reluctant to provide such employment for foreigners. But competition for outstanding doctoral students is a key aspect of the global knowledge economy. Here the Netherlands is uncompetitive compared to the United States, where two thirds of doctoral students receive scholarship support (data from the Institute for International Education, 2006). Approximately one quarter of foreign students in the Netherlands are awarded scholarships through an international granting agency, a Dutch agency or their home countries. However 83% of these scholarships go to Europe, with 12% to Asia and just 3% to Africa (data from the Observatory on Borderless Education, 2006).

According to the OECD 25.1% of Dutch citizens students who go abroad to study enrol in Belgium, 20.1% enrol in the UK, 15.3% in the USA, 12.3 in the USA, 5.2% to Sweden and 5.0% to France (OECD, 2006, pp. 308-309). Approximately 6% of all Dutch students in both kinds of universities participate in cross-border mobility each year. A significant proportion of graduates, 26% from HBOs and 39% from research universities, have had some kind of foreign experience (Background Report, p. 86) and much of this consists of short programmes.

According to the departmental Background Report (p. 86) an estimated 10% of all faculty members in the research universities have foreign origins. The proportion in the HBOs is just 3%. As in other nations (Enders and Breen, 2004) the main internationalisation of faculty is comprised by sabbatical leave, exchange visits and research collaboration. A total of 38% of knowledge workers in the research universities had foreign experience in the previous five years with three fifths spending time in Europe and two

s pattern of faculty visits matches the patterns of co-authorship of papers. About three papers in five are co-authored in Europe, with 11.3% in each of the UK and Germany, 6.6% in France and 5.5% in Italy and Belgium (OCW, 2004a, p. 87).

Where longer term faculty mobility is strong, it takes the form of the most talented researchers and scholars at the doctoral and post-doctoral level moving especially to the USA; it signals a loss of national capacity that will have cumulating effects. The Netherlands shares the problem of net brain drain with many other advanced nations but unlike some other nations is not much aware of it. The issue is widely acknowledged but little addressed.

The Dutch government provides Netherlands Education Support Offices in many countries. A number of universities have established joint foreign study institutes where persons from the universities concerned can study in the country of location, persons from abroad can study Dutch language and culture, and scholars from the two nations can meet and exchange knowledge and perspectives. The universities of Leiden, Utrecht, Groningen and Leuven jointly govern such an institute in Cairo. Institutes jointly governed by Leiden and other universities are also located in Rome, Istanbul and Tokyo. Other institutes are located in Stuttgart, Florence, Madrid, Athens, Morocco, Turkey, and Syria. Some HBOs are establishing foreign campuses. There was little discussion of this in OCW or the HBO sector. The British and Australian experience of offshore operations suggests that it is important to establish effective quality assurance in relation to such programmes. Offshore operations are by their nature less transparent than programmes on home soil and are not easily compared to other programmes. In this case the dynamic of natural selection, on which much real quality maintenance depends, needs supplementation by formal regulatory process than is the case with onshore programmes.

Leiden is one of the most internationalised universities in the world. It has many collaborative meetings, consortia and other initiatives involving international networks. For example the Leiden University International Institute of Asian Studies, which is frequently visited by outstanding foreign scholars, houses a concentration of expertise that has few equals anywhere. In comparison with comparable centres in the English-speaking institutions the Leiden Institute is particularly notable for the breadth and depth of expertise in Chinese and dialect. Asian Studies at Leiden is only one field in which

The larger HBOs operate a significant number of international offices and linkages, including exchange arrangements and double appointments, and several would like a greater freedom to engage in international ventures abroad. These international activities tend to be at the margins of programmes and the review team saw no evidence of impact in organizational cultures. Perhaps the relatively low level of international activity in HBOs inhibits a transformative international environment. Cross-border teaching can be decoupled from domestic research, but cross-border research rests on a domestically grounded research capacity and cannot be so separated.

The growing emphasis on university rankings, particularly the annual Shanghai Jiao Tong University ranking, is leading many countries and universities to focus on acquiring the personnel who drive improved performance in the ranking index, notably Thomson/ISI-classified 'HiCi' researchers and Nobel Prize winners. This has generated intensified global competition at the peak of the researcher labour market, a competition driven by relative salaries, conditions of work and research infrastructure opportunities (Marginson and van der Wende, 2007). In addition, in the Netherlands and many other nations are likely to face shortages of researchers and university faculty, given the present demographic 'bulge' of people aged over 50 years.

In the longer term China and India will be the principal sources of mobile faculty and researchers. Knowledge industries in these countries will be competitive not just on price but on quality. The USA has to be a welcoming and effective recruiter of students and faculties from these countries, and other nations are smoothing the pathways to entry. It is likely that the Netherlands will be placed at a serious competitive disadvantage unless the problem of immigration blockages is resolved, and unless a more enthusiastic attitude develops in relation to recruitment of international researchers.

During the period of the country visit in April/May 2006 the review was informed that previous bottlenecks in the migration pathways of skilled knowledge workers had been opened up by regulatory changes to requirements so as to make the Netherlands more attractive to foreign researchers and personnel. It was noted that the Innovation Platform had been the catalyst for the policy change through its report on *Borderless mobility for knowledge migrants: how can we get talent to come to the Netherlands*

Nevertheless it appears that the changes made so far have not been far enough to overcome the problem either in relation to foreign or foreign faculty. Policy practice continues to be primarily dictated by a nationally protectionist outlook and the modus operandi of immigration policies, rather than by the more global and innovation-oriented objectives of universities and research networks. The difficulty of turning temporary status into permanent immigration status inhibits the potential of institutions to recruit both foreign students and faculty, especially from non-European countries.¹⁵

The 2006 OECD economic survey of the Netherlands emphasized the need for reforms ‘to facilitate immigration of knowledge workers further by introducing a points system for immigrants, as in Canada, Australia and Ireland, and by relaxing work permit rules’ to permit foreign PHD holders to stay on after graduation (p. 127). The issues are widely acknowledged within the Netherlands itself. During the visits of the review to research agencies the comment was made several times that important sectors of the Dutch population were not aware of the pressures of international competition and their manifestations in education and research. The Background Report (p. 89) also alludes to these problems. Areas for improvement; visa processing times are often uncompetitive compared to the UK; etc.

Comments cited to members of the review team suggest that in some cases at least foreign faculty and doctoral students of importance have been denied visas on the basis of judgments grounded less in the specific case than in blanket formulae based on country of origin. Some in government in the Netherlands evidence concerns that opening the door to high skill migrants without admitting their dependent family members. This is an example of a shortsighted or the wrong approach to the global knowledge economy. It is illogical to attempt to attract knowledge workers while dividing them from their dependents. If the Netherlands intends to provide a secure long-term home for people of talent from around the world, then it needs to compete more effectively as the provider of a suitable living environment for families.

During a 10-day research programme in September 2006 in one of the leading research intensive universities, a programme conducted by one member of the review team but separate from and five months subsequent to the visits for the

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the Netherlands institutions are internationally minded. The influence of the worldwide environment is acknowledged and this is also Dutch culture.

There is a formal policy commitment to opening up institutions to participation by foreign students and to increasing revenues from this and institutions have a growing financial incentive to increase student recruitment. In the 2006-2007 academic year there were English-language programmes at all levels. The 1 May 2006 adoption of code of conduct regarding international students in the Netherlands' signatory institutions to providing adequate information to international students in relations to programmes, fees, housing and other that in the past have been the cause of complaint (information from Observatory on Borderless Education, 2006).

Netherlands constitutes a relatively safe, secure and often attractive environment, with excellent urban transport, in which the principal language, English, is widely used. The Dutch fee structure is very competitive, for example in comparison with UK costs for foreign . There are some working opportunities for foreign students.

research universities are relatively strong in academic capacity and talent and in that respect capable of attracting foreign faculty and quality foreign doctoral students, providing the incentives and the study environment are favourable. They have some of the conditions to compete strongly for mobile labour in the more competitive environment now emerging.

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There is no systematic monitoring at departmental level of the patterns of foreign doctoral students, post-doctoral scholars and other

departmental commitment to promoting and administrating foreign entry is relatively weak compared to competitor countries, notably . Though there is some interest in raising monies from international fees, there is no evidence that internationalization of the student

onal student recruitment - such as the US, UK, and Australia - that not yet in the Netherlands a similar environment and culture that the promotion of foreign student recruitment, retention and success.

scope for foreign student recruitment is limited by the use of Dutch language of instruction in first degrees; and by the weight of the within Dutch higher education, because all else equal, a professional degree, with its strong focus on local employment is less attractive research university degree from other nations.

machinery for assessing and recognizing foreign universities and qualifications is cumbersome. The slow development of cross-cooperation in quality assurance is one inhibiting factor here.

ration opportunities are a key driver of internationalization, in to both students and faculty. In the USA, UK and Australia short-student migration often becomes long term or permanent settlement. In pect the Netherlands provides a less attractive potential home to e personnel than do the English-language nations. Potential e immigrants face higher official hurdles than in some other nations. ite students face more cultural barriers in the Netherlands than they

ne competitor countries and their higher education institutions place emphasis on the value of diversity and the benefits provided to the y the presence of foreign students and migrants.

lence provided to the review team indicated that the overall entry of doctoral students, post-doctoral faculty and more senior faculty was at inhibited by lack of opportunities to establish, and/or ease of aining, both migration status and faculty careers. This is a case-by-case Most such anecdotes concerned immigration delays affecting senior t some younger people are also affected. These factors retard the of the Netherlands to compete for globally mobile intellectual especially at the top end of the global market. Further, Netherlands scales and total remuneration are uncompetitive vis-à-vis the USA. In ence of more flexible arrangements, again this decisively inhibits ent of the highest calibre faculty. There seems to be little concern is problem.

re is no systematic monitoring at departmental level of the patterns

tes, which compares unfavourably with some other countries. While broad awareness of net 'brain drain' there is little evidence of or forward thinking in relation to the issue.

ch universities are prevented from offering a full qualification on soil. This prevents deeper forms of international engagement, such -alone or partner-based campuses in other nations, which can also be platforms for other activities such as foreign student recruitment into erlands, research collaboration, and links to foreign industry.

endations

the most part policy makers understand the challenges and are , institutions in the right direction but there are questions about and impetus. Incentives are not strong enough and machinery is cking. International affairs are too readily marginalized in national tration. There is a reluctance to lead the nation through (and if beyond) the present anxieties about immigration even of high professional migrants, and these anxieties are inhibiting the global eness of the tertiary education sector.

quantitative and qualitative growth of international openness and ment are essential, especially but not only in the research-intensive ties. Higher education is now globally referenced throughout the and both global cooperation and global competition are increasingly ial in shaping national systems and institutions (Marginson, 2006).

ch of this international engagement is and should be pursued at the on level, and within institutions at the discipline level, particularly in research universities. It should not be over-regulated. It is important es more transparent and is coordinated where appropriate within the ork of overall national and institutional strategies and priorities. Here nicipal potentials for national policy lie in framework-building s (quality assurance systems, benchmarking, research funding mes, national programmes of doctoral scholarships for foreign , etc.) coupled with strategic subsidies and other interventions that gned to stimulate particular initiatives and remove blockages.

siderations of global strategy now take in relationships with other ons within Europe, relationships through Europe with the rest of the

the development of a European-wide classification system in which strengths of Dutch institutions will become more visible.

International panel members should be routinely included in programme evaluation and in research performance evaluation by institutions and faculties. Global sensibilities and engagement can be systematized by benchmarking against Europe and the entire world, on the basis of the faculty and the entire institution. It is important to develop more sophisticated and complex instruments for global comparison than those provided by the existing systems of global university rankings. Special attention needs to be given to devising methods of cross-border benchmarking of HBOs with comparable institutions.

Internationalisation strategies in relation to personnel movement are required to operate on the same scale, generate the same levels of income, or provide a medium for the internal transformation of university culture, as has been evident in the UK and Australia. Because the prospects for fully economic development are limited, internationalisation will need to be pursued to a greater degree than in those nations. As in the USA, much of it will be dominated by subsidized research relationships rather than by market-raising.

Outward looking engagement of Dutch institutions in Europe and beyond provides the starting point for more balanced two-way flows of people and ideas than is the case in the English-speaking nations.

A fuller and more consistent opening of migration opportunities to attract and fill knowledge workers would assist internationalisation goals and enhance faculty quality in both HBOs and research universities, ensuring that faculty career opportunities are expanded. The labour market is a global one. Given the intrinsic excellence of Dutch research scholarship coupled with the reputations and traditions of the leading universities, the Netherlands can aspire to a national R&D base capable not only of retaining local talent but attracting foreign and foreign-trained research talent, and providing a magnet capable of attracting not just multinational companies but foreign companies. Special attention needs to be given to potential recruits from Asian nations given their demographic weight, the rapidly developing research capacity of these nations, and the potential global mobility of their personnel. Half of all incoming students, and the overwhelming majority outside Europe, are from Asia. Students from Asia are a significant and growing proportion of the student body. The Netherlands is a leading destination for Asian students, and the Dutch government has a strong interest in attracting and supporting them. The Netherlands is a leading destination for Asian students, and the Dutch government has a strong interest in attracting and supporting them.

presence is not as strong as in the English-speaking countries or Norway. It would be a mistake to leave implementation of the official largely to higher education institutions.

The foreign student market continues to grow, increasing from 1.5 million students worldwide in 1990 to 2.7 million in 2004 (OECD, 2005, p. 287). A modest expansion of international revenues is a realistic goal, especially in areas where Dutch education is relatively strong. Goals for international student recruitment should be less open-ended and more limited than in the past, but pursued with greater vigour and consistency at departmental and institutional levels.

The Netherlands should target the quality end of the cross-border higher education market, not the mass high volume end; partly so as to use foreign student recruitment to promote the knowledge economy credentials of the Netherlands and its higher education institutions. This suggests that the main focus for recruitment should be academic Masters and doctoral programmes. There is some scope also for recruitment into English language non-academic Masters programmes in selected industries in both research-intensive universities and HBOs. In addition the number of Bachelor-level programmes in English should be increased.

Already the Ministry has adopted this set of priorities already. It is on the right track and is on the right track but needs to lift the status of internationalisation within its own operation and to pursue policy objectives to internationalise more systematically, including promotional activities on behalf of Dutch tertiary education. The Background Report states that 'apart from actually being world top, establishing a reputation as a leading and therefore interesting nation in terms of education and research is also important' (p. 88). Government could do more to use diplomatic channels abroad to facilitate promotion and foreign student entry, and to showcase Dutch research achievements and the potential for collaboration. Presence is also important.

Options for jointly badged degrees offered in collaboration with reputable foreign institutions, and the 'twinning' of programmes with foreign institutions in which the first part of the degree is provided outside the Netherlands could be further explored. Dutch institutions should be encouraged to operate offshore campuses, provided that these campuses and programmes are fully subject to national accreditation and quality assurance requirements.

10. Conclusions

Netherlands must strengthen the capacity of its tertiary system, making it more responsive and flexible, for a more European and global and more fully suited to integrating first and second generation immigrant populations into the human capital and culture of the nation.

The national system has great strengths in the face of these considerable challenges. It is well understood by its practitioners, professionalism is maintained at all levels, and quality assurance processes are functional. Both research-intensive universities and the HBOs are intrinsically healthy, with long-standing traditions, competent personnel and 'thick' and active engagement to the society and economy they serve. Both the HBO and the research-intensive university sector could be expanded to meet growing domestic and foreign demand. The research-intensive universities are strong in basic research, the bedrock of any research university system. More through organic voluntary evolution than through the system of national policies, subsidies and incentives, some Dutch universities are not far below the standards of the best universities in the world and have the potential to attract more students, faculty and international corporate investment in R&D if the right incentives are in place. The HBOs have a deep practical commitment to serving communities and industry and to bringing education and work closer together. In general, institutional leadership and management are competent and in the research universities there is a strong ethos of self-regulated productivity and a widespread and genuine culture of research excellence.

However, for reasons outlined in Chapter Three, Dutch tertiary education is relatively weak in national priority setting, in the identification and solving of problems; and the long-term approach to policy. This inhibits a proactive response to the global challenges and to the more culturally diverse resident population with its special educational needs. The national

ent. Internal departmental coherence is insufficient. By comparison
in responses to political guidance are well developed.

Our view the key challenges facing the system in the immediate and
in future include:

The slow rate of growth of public and private investment in higher
education and research, compared to most other OECD countries,
and decline in the GDP share;

The slow rate of improvement in participation levels and some
decline in the global competitiveness of Dutch higher education in
relation to this indicator;

The need to lift educational and social achievement among
immigrant 'non-Western' populations;

The need to develop student selection and student choice-making as
policy instruments; and to devise a more effective student-
institution relationship than that constituted by automatic entry,
ballots, enrolment over capacity levels, and end of year one
selection on the basis of failure;

The need to develop mechanisms that will focus effectively on
improving excellence in teaching;

The potential of institutional diversity within the traditional sectors
and across barriers such as WO/HBO, public/private and
local/foreign; the need to develop a more flexible and needs-driven
binary system; the need for greater variation in programmes on the
basis of time length and price; and the strategic question of whether
and how the Netherlands might develop more globally competitive
research universities;

The need to establish a framework of conditions and incentives that
will attract foreign students (especially doctoral students) and
faculty of high quality, both to augment the Dutch knowledge
economy in the present and provide part of the basic human
infrastructure in the future, given the ageing of the academic
population and the problem of 'brain drain' to the USA.

positive message here is that there is very considerable scope, in
financial, organisational and institutional leadership, and management, to

support should be enhanced. However, there are also high quality centres and programmes (see Chapter Seven). Substantial efforts have been made to connect industry and university research. Here the continuing ‘Dutch paradox’ owes itself not so much to weaknesses in innovation policy as to the difficulty of the task. Much can be achieved by resetting incentives and activities on the supply side, for example so as to attract more business R&D investment. But the level of business R&D in the Netherlands depends on the demand side (OECD, 2006b, p. 18). It is partly a function of industry structure, including the small number of major players, and the relatively small size of the high-tech sector within the economy.

Perhaps the major R&D players in the corporate sector could do more to encourage utilisation in Dutch universities and institutes and foster a growing SME subcontractor network. The review team would need more time to thoroughly investigate this aspect. But we note that there may be scope for a more active policy here. Dutch government support for major multinationals might more strongly encourage corporations to interact with Dutch nodes of the global knowledge economy. At the same time, in the longer term it is likely that the research and innovation system will have a greater scope to expand its role in serving European and global markets than its role in serving Dutch business alone. This raises questions about the identity of policy – European? Dutch? a combination? – that are interesting in themselves, but beyond the competence of this review to

There might be more scope for expanding university-private sector links with emerging knowledge-intensive companies than large companies. Although ‘the Netherlands also has a relatively small share of high-tech multinationals in high-tech sectors in the total economy’ (OCW, 2004a, p. 95).

One downside of the ‘Dutch paradox’ is that this difficult policy problem has captured a great deal of governmental energy while other issues have been ignored. In policy debate certain issues can take on symbolic importance that moves beyond the content of the issues themselves. Debates become rituals enabling key actors to make public noises that position themselves in expected ways, rather than giving consideration to different policy solutions. The same kind of comment could be made about the focus on the binary line, and the public debates associated with these. It is less important than whether the HBOs provide funded Arts degrees

flip side of a stable higher education system with vital traditions is change is more likely to occur through evolution than revolution. The team finds that the intrinsic culture of higher education in the Netherlands embodies certain fundamental weaknesses but it will take some time for these issues to be overcome or even to be effectively addressed, as they are deeply rooted.

One entrenched problem is the national habit of treating higher education as exclusively a young person's preserve. Another and even more fundamental problem is the tendency to manage diversity through segregation and path dependence; rather than through pluralism, mobility and multiple opportunities within common systems. For a review team from the Netherlands this aspect was disturbing.

Segmentation of the school age population leads to neatly ordered educational progressions, especially for students in the academic stream. It also allows high quality to be secured in the academic stream at a reasonable overall cost, constituting the 'value for money' referred to in the OECD's Background Report. But there are many thousands of other students who might have benefited from an academic education who are excluded away from it at an early age, and do not find their way back. The lack of limited opportunities to track upwards and the absence of an infrastructure for lifelong learning at scale there are few second chances. Of particular concern are the relatively high presence of immigrant families in the bottom stream at school, and the relatively low rates of completion for students from the same families in higher education. There is a real concern that education is entrenching serious social divisions along cultural

lines. There is also a positive opportunity here. Higher education could play a key role in integrating immigrant communities more effectively into Dutch society: by providing an equitable framework of opportunity, by valuing and respecting cultural diversity in the classroom and outside it, and by practising tolerance and respect for religious freedoms.

Overall the tertiary system is not sufficiently inclusive. Equity and social considerations are important in Dutch policy but are more likely to be addressed within the different segments and sectors, rather than between them and across the whole population. Aggregate participation goals seem less important in the Netherlands than in many other countries. There is a sufficient urgency about the 50% target and moving beyond it. Perhaps

to compare Dutch levels of participation in higher education with nations as Canada and Korea. Is academic ability more broadly spread in those countries than in the Netherlands? We think this is so, given the high level of performance Dutch youth demonstrate in PISA assessment.

Another example of the tendency to handle diversity via segmentation and hierarchy, rather than inclusion and universality, is the present fragmentation of institutional diversity. Rather than encouraging a broad range of horizontal diversity the system has been managed in terms of a firm vertical line (again, difference is expressed hierarchically) with problems of quality policing, plus uniformity within each separate sector. There is nothing wrong with the binary principle but this is not the only possible way to handle diversity. Further, the instinctive preference for uniform systems has led to experimentation in modes of delivery and fee levels.

In the longer run it may be that the Netherlands will be better served by a more open system of tertiary education with much more scope for variation in content, programmes and modes of delivery, with individual missions determined in government determined national need coupled with responsiveness to students, employers and localities. At the least it will be necessary to move towards greater flexibility and cross-sector collaboration, both within and between the land. But the final resolution of these issues is a distant prospect at best. Meanwhile it is important to make the binary divide work – to use it to serve the wider needs of the nation rather than the aspiration of any particular institution or sector - rather than it being continually eroded. The current division of the WOs in basic research and doctoral training constitutes the current dividing line between research-intensive institutions and HBOs.

There is the evident need to develop stronger data instruments in many areas such as participation and success by ethnic group and by economic status; the cross-border mobility of faculty and doctoral students; the movement in both directions; institutional revenues off budget, etc. It is true that 'an army marches on its stomach' – and it is equally true that a government department moves on the basis of data. It gains its policy edge from its capacity to imagine the system in complex sociological and economic terms, to predict outcomes, and to fashion well-understood policy options for government and institutions to consider.

way of developing this understanding is through working experience
 version in the institution itself. In many countries this is achieved by
 uipment of senior Ministry staff from higher education institutions, a
 that does not appear to take place in the Netherlands. We believe
 W policymaking for higher education would be strengthened if its
 ssessed a deepened understanding of and connectivity to higher
 on institutions. This can be accomplished through the recruitment of
 o have worked in tertiary institutions, devising plans of flexible
 ment, even of a few months' duration, or by other means.

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Appendix 1: The OECD Review Team

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Coordinator for the Netherlands

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Background Report Authors

André and Jurriaan Berger of the firm EIM authored the Country Background Report for the Ministry of Culture, and Science (OCW), published October 2006 as part of the studies Hoger Onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk onderzoek No. 124; Scientific Review of Tertiary Education, The Netherlands.

Appendix 3: Programme of the Review Visit

April 24

Ministry of Education (OCW)
 Innovation Platform
 Ministry of Economic Affairs
 Ministry of Finance
 HBO-Raad

April 25

VNO-NCW (Confederation of industry and employers, Standing
 Committee on higher education)
 Aob Utrecht
 TNO, Delft
 NVAO Den Haag

April 26

Inspectorate for Higher Education, OCW
 NWO (Research Council) and AWT (Advisory Council for Science
 and Technology)
 VSNU (Association of Universities)
 ISO and LSVB-student organisations

April 27

Hogeschool InHolland Den Haag (central management)
 HBO-ICT academie Zoetermeer
 Mr. Chang, Chair of Chang Commission
 Haagse Hogeschool

28

University of Utrecht

Tilburg Fontys and Avans hogeschool s'Hertogenbosch

y 1

TU Delft

Hogeschool voor mode management

InHolland Den Haag

Free University Amsterdam

Hobbeon Den Haag

y 2

Technical University Delft

MKB Nederland

Briefing OCW

4: Comparative Indicators on Tertiary Education

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Population aged 25-64 with tertiary qualifications (2004)				
B – Total	2	9	22/24	22
Males	3		22/23	-
Females	2		21/25	-
A – Total	26	19 ⁱ	3/30	137
Males	28		3/30	-
Females	24		4/30	-
Research programmes – Total	-		-	-
Males	1		-	-
Females	-		-	-
Population aged 25-34 with tertiary qualifications (2004)				
B	2	11	22/24	18
A and advanced research	32	24	2/24	133
Population aged 55-64 with tertiary qualifications (2004)				
B	2	6	13/24	33
A and advanced research	22	13	2/24	169
Population aged 25-64 with tertiary qualifications – time trends				
	20	18	11/21	111
	29	25	11/30	116
Population aged 25-34 with tertiary qualifications (2004)				

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Years in formal education	11.2	11.9	23/30	94
Years in tertiary education				
Graduates divided by the number of students in the typical year of				
A education	76	70	6/21	109
B education	-	62	-	-
Research programmes	-	67	-	-
Ratio of tertiary studies (in various)⁴				
A education	-	3.94	-	-
B education	-	2.38	-	-
A and advanced research	5.24	4.42	7/24	119
Graduates by field of study⁵				
A				
Education	18.2	-	7/27	
Humanities and arts	6.5	-	23/27	
Natural sciences, business and law	34.9	-	13/27	
Medicine	5.1	-	24/27	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	10.5	-	17/27	
Culture	2.1	-	12/27	
Health and welfare	20.3	-	5/27	
Services	2.4	-	15/27	
Unknown or unspecified	-	-	-	
Total fields	100	-	-	
B				
Education	-	-	-	
Humanities and arts	-	-	-	
Natural sciences, business and law	-	-	-	
Medicine	-	-	-	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	-	-	-	

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Research programmes				
Education	-	-	-	
Humanities and arts	8.7	-	23/27	
Natural sciences, business and law	17.2	-	12/26	
Science	19.6	-	8/27	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	17.5	-	9/26	
Culture	8.5	-	7/26	
Health and welfare	28.4	-	5/27	
Services	-	-	-	
Unknown or unspecified	-	-	-	
All fields	-	-	-	
Graduates by field of study⁵ per capita (2002)				
A				
Education	9.73	-	7/27	
Humanities and arts	3.47	-	2/27	
Natural sciences, business and law	18.70	-	10/27	
Science	2.75	-	2/27	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	5.64	-	16/27	
Culture	1.11	-	10/27	
Health and welfare	10.88	-	7/27	
Services	1.27	-	14/27	
Unknown or unspecified	-	-	-	
All fields	53.58	-	15/27	
B				
Education	-	-	-	
Humanities and arts	-	-	-	
Natural sciences, business and law	-	-	-	
Science	-	-	-	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	-	-	-	
Culture	-	-	-	
Health and welfare	-	-	-	
Services	-	-	-	
Unknown or unspecified	-	-	-	

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Research programmes				
Education	-	-	-	
Humanities and arts	0.14	-	19/27	
Natural sciences, business and law	0.27	-	13/26	
Science	0.31	-	18/27	
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	0.28	-	10/26	
Culture	0.14	-	6/26	
Health and welfare	0.45	-	6/27	
Services	-	-	-	
Unknown or unspecified	-	-	-	
All fields	1.60	-	12/27	
Ratio of expenditure on education to GDP (2004)				
Expenditure on education for 25 to 64-year-olds in the Netherlands as a percentage of the GDP of the Netherlands (25 to 64)				
Primary education				
Expenditure	79.6	72.1	9/30	110
Expenditure on primary education (ISCED 3A)	51.5	48.9	13/30	105
Expenditure on secondary education (ISCED 3A)	86.5	81.6	6/29	106
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education	73.9	65.3	6/29	113
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education	-	-	-	
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education, type B	-	-	-	
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced programmes	85.4	87.6	20/26	97
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced programmes	74.5	77.2	10/26	97
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced programmes	88.7	89.1	17/30	100
Expenditure on tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced programmes	75.8	79.1	17/30	96

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
ratio and educational				
(2004)				
25 to 34-year-olds in				
as a percentage				
tertiary education				
men	88.1	80.2	6/22	110
women	60.6	51.2	5/22	118
tertiary education (ISCED 3A)				
men	-	87.0	-	-
women	-	167.8	-	-
secondary non-tertiary education				
men	-	89.3	-	-
women	-	75.9	-	-
education, type B				
men	95.5	93.4	9/23	102
women	96.8	78.5	16/23	123
education, type A and advanced				
programmes				
men	95.5	93.6	5/23	102
women	89.7	82.1	2/23	109
ratio and educational				
(2004)				
25 to 64-year-olds who are				
as a percentage of the				
aged 25 to 64				
tertiary education				
men	5.8	10.1	18/29	57
women	4.4	11.0	25/29	40
tertiary education (ISCED 3A)				
men	3.8	5.7	22/28	67
women	3.7	7.2	23/28	51
secondary non-tertiary education				
men	4.2	-	6/17	-
women	2.7	-	14/17	-
education, type B				
men	2.6	3.7	20/25	70
women	4.6	4.5	9/24	102

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Population ratio and educational attainment (2004)				
Population aged 25 to 64-year-olds who are not in the labour force as a percentage of the total population				
Population with tertiary education	6.0	11.1	18/22	54
Population with tertiary education (ISCED 3A)	8.8	15.2	14/22	58
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education	-	6.2	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education	-	8.7	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type B	-	8.1	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced vocational programmes ⁱⁱ	-	6.8	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type B	2.9	4.5	15/23	64
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced vocational programmes ⁱⁱ	3.2	5.4	15/23	59
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type B	2.6	3.4	15/23	76
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced vocational programmes ⁱⁱ	2.1	5.1	21/23	41
Population not in the labour force and educational attainment (2004)				
Population aged 25 to 64-year-olds not in the labour force as a percentage of the total population aged 25 to 64				
Population with tertiary education	16.6	20.0	12/22	83
Population with tertiary education (ISCED 3A)	45.3	45.4	13/22	100
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education	-	14.5	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education	-	30.1	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type B	-	9.7	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced vocational programmes ⁱⁱ	-	22.7	-	-
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type B	10.3	8.9	9/24	116
Population with tertiary non-tertiary education, type A and advanced vocational programmes ⁱⁱ	20.7	18.6	6/24	111

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
population not in the labour force				
educational attainment (2004)				
60 to 64-year-olds not in the labour force as a percentage of the population aged 30 to 64				
Primary education				
Males	6.3	10.1	14/22	62
Females	35.5	39.9	14/22	89
Lower secondary education (ISCED 3A)				
Males	-	7.3	-	-
Females	-	25.9	-	-
Upper secondary non-tertiary education				
Males	-	2.8	-	-
Females	-	18.3	-	-
Upper secondary education, type B				
Males	4.0	3.2	8/23	125
Females	20.7	16.9	5/23	122
Upper secondary education, type A and advanced vocational programmes				
Males	2.1	3.5	9/23	60
Females	8.4	13.5	21/23	62
tertiary graduates aged 25-64				
as a percentage of upper secondary graduates (2002) (upper secondary = 100)				
Males	148	-	-	-
tertiary graduates aged 30-64				
as a percentage of upper secondary graduates (2002) (upper secondary = 100)				
Males	147	-	-	-
relative earnings of tertiary graduates aged 25-64 (upper secondary = 100)				
Upper secondary non-tertiary education				
Males	141	-	-	-
Females	148	-	-	-

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
OF PARTICIPATION				
Participation rates of all persons aged 15 and over in education and training programmes (2002)				
1 persons aged 15 and over in 15A programmes	3.9	4.0	14/26	98
1 persons aged 15 and over in 15B programmes	0.1	0.7	24/26	14
1 persons aged 15 and over in 15C programmes	0	0.2	20/23	-
1 persons aged 15 and over in 15D programmes	4.0	4.9	18/26	82
Change in total tertiary enrolment (2004) (1995 = 100)				
butable to change in enrolment ⁸	-	96	-	
butable to change in enrolment rates ⁹	-	151	-	
Participation rates (2004)				
1 part-time students in public institutions, by age				
1 15-19 as a percentage of the total 15-19	86.1	80.5	1/28	107
1 20-29 as a percentage of the total 20-29	25.5	24.7	14/28	103
1 30-39 as a percentage of the total 30-39	2.9	5.6	22/28	52
1 40 and over as a percentage of the total 40 and over	0.8	1.6	12/22	50

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Ratio of enrolments (2003)				
35 and over as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-5A	9.1	10.3	11/24	88
35 and over as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-5B	25.7	16.2	6/21	159
35 and over as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-6	4.4	30.2	21/22	15
35 and over as a per cent of enrolments in total tertiary programmes	9.3	11.7	11/24	79
less than 25 as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-5A	71.4	63.9	8/26	112
less than 25 as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-5B	45.4	58.9	19/26	77
less than 25 as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-6	14.5	10.2	7/21	142
less than 25 as a per cent of enrolments in total tertiary programmes	70.4	61.5	9/27	114
less than 20 as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-5A	18.6	13.9	11/27	134
less than 20 as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-5B	9.8	17.2	18/27	57
less than 20 as a per cent of enrolments in tertiary type-6	-	0.4	-	-
less than 20 as a per cent of enrolments in total tertiary programmes	18.2	15.0	12/27	121

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Distribution of enrolments (2003)				
...a per cent of enrolments in 5A programmes	51.0	53.2	21/29	96
...a per cent of enrolments in 5B programmes	59.6	54.8	10/29	109
...a per cent of enrolments in 5C programmes	41.0	44.0	21/28	93
...a per cent of total tertiary	51.0	33.2	21/29	154
Enrolment rates into tertiary education¹⁰				
...B education, public	-	16	-	-
...B education, government-private	-	14	-	-
...B education, independent	-	16	-	-
...A and advanced research public	56	53	10/26	106
...A and advanced research government-dependent	52	48	10/25	108
...A and advanced research independent private	61	59	12/25	103
Mode of study of students in tertiary mode of study¹¹ (2004)				
...B education, public	-	64.9	-	-
...B education, government-private	-	19.1	-	-
...B education, independent	-	13.4	-	-
...A and advanced research public	-	76.7	-	-
...A and advanced research government-dependent	100	12.0	1/14	833
...A and advanced research independent private	-	11.7	-	-
Mode of study of students in tertiary mode of study (2004)				
...B education, public	-	72.1	-	-

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Ratio of net entrants into tertiary-type A (2004)				
1st percentile (20% of new entrants 18 years of age)	18.4	-	-	-
5th percentile (50% of new entrants 18 years of age)	19.8	-	-	-
10th percentile (80% of new entrants 18 years of age)	22.7	-	-	-
Foreign students as a percentage of all students (2003) (foreign and domestic students)	3.9	7.4	15/27	53
Index of foreign students as a percentage of all students (2004) (foreign students) (2000 = 100)	152	161	11/28	94
Ratio of students enrolled abroad in foreign countries relative to total enrolment ¹³ (2003)	0.9	4.0	27/29	23
Index of the 20-29 age group relative to 2005 (2005 = 100) ¹⁴	109	97	6/30	112
Secondary attainment rates (2004) (aged 25-34 with at least upper secondary education)	80	77	16/30	104
Years of tertiary education under favourable conditions (2004) (part-time) ¹⁵	2.7	3.0	20/28	90
Ratio of tertiary education ¹⁶ Source: OECD (2005)				
Ratio of the number of places in most branches of public and private tertiary education				
at national level with direct effect		1/35	-	-
in institutions (In accordance with capacity or national criteria)		23/35	-	-
in most branches	√	11/35	-	-

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Figure 1				
Expenditure on tertiary institutions per student, public institutions (2003)				
US dollars converted using full-time equivalents				
education (including R&D)	13444	11254	3/19	107
B education (including R&D)	-	-	-	-
A and advanced research (including R&D activities)	13537	-	-	-
education excluding R&D	8337	8093	8/26	103
Expenditure on tertiary institutions per student GDP per capita, public institutions (2003)				
Full-time equivalents				
education (including R&D)	42	43	9/28	98
B education (including R&D)	-	30	-	-
A and advanced research (including R&D activities)	43	44	8/18	98
education excluding R&D	26	33	20/26	79
Expenditure on educational institutions per student over the average tertiary studies¹⁷ (2003)				
US dollars converted using full-time equivalents				
education	-	43030	-	-
B education	-	-	-	-
A and advanced research	70932	-	-	-

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Tertiary education expenditure relative to different factors				
Change between 1995 and 2003 (2003 constant prices)				
Expenditure	112	146	23/25	77
Number of students	109	138	13/24	79
Expenditure per student	103	106	16/24	97
Tertiary education expenditure in US dollars converted using constant prices and 2001 constant				
	12311	9284	5/22	133
	12974	10052	6/26	129
Expenditure on tertiary education as a percentage of GDP, from private sources				
Education, 2003	1.3	1.4	18/29	93
B education, 2003	-	0.2	-	-
A education, 2003	1.3	1.2	8/18	108
Education, 1995	1.2	-	8/23	-
Proportions of public and private expenditure on educational institutions, for education				
Of public and private sources of expenditure on educational institutions after public sources				
Expenditure, 2003	78.6	76.4	16/28	103
Expenditure, household expenditure, 2003	11.5	-	-	-
Expenditure, expenditure of other private sources, 2003	9.9	-	-	-
Expenditure, all private sources, 2003	21.4	23.6	13/28	91
Expenditure, private, of which subsidised, 2003	1.5	1.5	7/12	100
Expenditure, 1995	80.6	-	10/19	-
Expenditure, household expenditure, 1995	10.1	-	9/15	-
Expenditure, expenditure of other private sources, 1995	9.3	-	5/10	-

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
of total public expenditure on education (2003)				
Expenditure on tertiary education to educational institutions and transfers to the private sector, as a % of total public expenditure on education	-	71.7	-	-
Public expenditure on public tertiary education	74.1	11.2	2/21	662
Public transfers and payments to the private sector	25.9	17.4	6/28	149
Public expenditure on tertiary education as a proportion of total public expenditure on all educational institutions (public and private institutions)	25.2	24.8	13/29	102
Public expenditure on tertiary education as a percentage of GDP (2003)				
Public expenditure on tertiary education plus public subsidies to educational institutions (which include subsidies for educational institutions and other private entities)	-	3.1	-	-
Percentage of total public expenditure ¹⁸	1.3	1.3	11/29	100
Public financial aid to students as a percentage of total public expenditure on education (2003)				
Public financial aid to students / other grants to households	12.1	9.8	14/28	123
Public financial aid to students / other grants to households	13.7	7.1	8/17	193
Public financial aid to students / other grants to households for educational institutions	1.4	1.6	7/10	88
Public expenditure on institutions by service as a percentage of GDP (2003)				
Public expenditure on institutions / other services	0.78	1.06	21/25	74
Public expenditure on institutions / other services (transport, meals, housing for educational institutions)	-	0.06	-	-

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
on tertiary education				
by resource category (2003)				
of total and current expenditure				
education institutions from				
ivate sources				
total expenditure				
ent	95.2	89.7	5/27	106
tal	4.8	10.3	23/27	47
current expenditure				
compensation of teachers	-	43.0	-	-
compensation of other staff	-	23.4	-	-
compensation of all staff	74.6	65.5	7/28	114
er current	25.4	34.5	22/28	74
and tuition fees (2002/03)¹⁹				
dice (2005)				
and tuition fees and other				
ade by students of full-time				
e courses, public sector				
or compulsory contributions		9/35	-	-
contributions to student		3/35	-	-
and/or tuition fees (and				
contributions to student	√	23/35	-	-
)				
LEVELS				
vement levels of graduates				
(1994-1995) Source: IALS				
ed 25-34 at IALS levels 1 and	10	19	16/21	53
t of total graduates aged 25-34				
ed 25-34 at IALS levels 4 and	48	40	7/21	120
t of total graduates aged 25-34				

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
of PROVISION				
Students to teaching staff in education²⁰ (2004)				
Full-time equivalents, Public and private institutions.				
Primary education B	-	15.9	-	-
Secondary education A and advanced research programmes	-	16.3	-	-
Tertiary education all	13.6	15.5	13/24	88

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS OF 15-YEAR-OLD

Expected educational levels				
Source: PISA 2003 (OECD, 2004)				
15-year-old students who expect to complete secondary education, general programmes (ISCED 3A)	40.0	48.9	21/28	82
15-year-old students who expect to complete secondary education, vocational programmes (ISCED 3B or C)	-	29.9	-	-
15-year-old students who expect to complete post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 4)	24.9	16.4	3/21	152
15-year-old students who expect to complete tertiary-type B education	-	20.5	-	-
15-year-old students who expect to complete tertiary-type A education or an advanced research qualification (ISCED 5A)	40.6	44.0	16/29	92

FINANCING OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Public expenditure on Research and Development (R&D) as a percentage of GDP

	Netherlands	OECD mean	Netherlands' rank ¹	% to OECD mean ²
Ratio of R&D expenditure on R&D to GDP				
Ratio (2006)	0.50	0.39	6/26	128
	0.57	0.34	3/27	168
Ratio of gross domestic product on R&D by sector of				
(2004)				
Ratio (2006)				
Ratio	27.9	17.3	9/26	161
Ratio in education in 1995)	28.8	16.3	7/26	177
Ratio in enterprise	57.8	68.0	18/26	85
Ratio in non-profit sector	14.4	12.1	11/20	119
	0	2.6	-	-
Ratio of higher education on R&D financed by				
Source: OECD (2006)				
	6.8	6.0	8/24	113
	4.0	6.2	19/27	65
Ratio of researchers per thousand total				
Source: OECD (2006)				
	4.5	-	15/22	-
	4.9	5.8	12/25	84
Ratio of R&D as a percentage of national				
income equivalent) (2003)				
Ratio (2006)				
Ratio	27.4	-	-	136
Ratio in education in 1995)	36.6	26.9	13/26	-
Ratio in enterprise	51.7	-	-	-
	20.6	-	-	-
Ratio of OECD total "triadic" patent				
(2006)				
Ratio (2006)	1.97	-	6/30	-
	1.96	-	7/30	-
Ratio of students as a per cent of				
population (2003)	-	13.7	-	-

Notes for the Tables

are from Education at a Glance, OECD Indicators 2004, 2005 and 2006, unless otherwise in the table.

(2005), *Key data on education in Europe 2005*, Eurydice, Brussels

International adult literacy survey database

(2004), *Learning for Tomorrow's World, First Results from PISA 2003*, OECD,

(2006), *Main Science and Technology Indicators, volume 2006/2*, OECD, Paris

rank" indicates the position of NTL when countries are ranked in descending order from the highest to lowest value on the indicator concerned. For example, on the indicator "*% of the population aged 25-64 with tertiary qualifications, Tertiary-type B - Total*", the rank "*x/x*" indicates that NTL recorded the *xx*st highest value of the *xx* countries that reported relevant data. The symbol "=" means that at least one country has the same rank.

"OECD mean" indicates NTL's value as a per cent of the OECD value. For example, on the first indicator "*% of the population aged 25-64 with tertiary qualifications, Tertiary-type B - Total*", the percentage "*xx*" indicates that NTL's value is *xx*% of the OECD mean.

The calculation of the average years in formal education is based upon the weighted average duration of schooling to achieve a given level of education, according to the duration of educational programmes as reported in the UOE data collection.

Alternative methods were employed to calculate the average duration of tertiary education: the approximation formula and the chain method. For both methods, it should be noted that the result does not give the average duration needed for a student to complete tertiary education since all students participating in tertiary education are taken into account, including drop-outs. Hence, the figure can be interpreted as the average length of time students stay in tertiary education until they either graduate or drop out.

The indicators show the ratio of graduates as a proportion to all fields of studies. The classification of education used follows the revised ISCED classification by field of education.

Employed are defined as those who during the survey reference week: *i*) work for

unemployed are defined as individuals who are without work, actively seeking employment and currently available to start work.

Impact of demographic change on total enrolment is calculated by applying the enrolment rates measured in 1995 to the population data for 2003: population change is taken into account while enrolment rates by single year of age were kept constant at 1995 level.

Impact of changing enrolment rates is calculated by applying the enrolment rates measured in 2003 to the population data for 1995: the enrolment rates by single year of age in 2003 are multiplied by the population by single year of age for 1995 to obtain the number of students that could be expected if the population had been constant at 1995 level.

Enrolment rates represent the proportion of persons of a synthetic age cohort who attain a certain level of tertiary education at one point during their lives.

Higher education institutions are classified as either *public* or *private* according to whether a public or a private entity has the ultimate power to make decisions concerning the institution's affairs. An institution is classified as *private* if it is controlled and managed by a non-governmental organisation (e.g., a Church, a Trade Union or a business enterprise), or if its Governing Board consists mostly of members not selected by a public agency. The terms “government-dependent” and “independent” refer only to the degree of a private institution's dependence on funding from government sources. A *government-dependent private institution* is one that receives more than 50% of its core funding from government agencies. An *independent private institution* is one that receives less than 50% of its core funding from government agencies.

Students are classified as foreign students if they are not citizens of the country for which the data are collected. Countries unable to provide data or estimates for non-nationals on the basis of their passports were requested to substitute data according to an alternative criterion, e.g., the country of residence, the non-national mother or non-national parentage.

The number of students studying abroad is obtained from the report of the countries of origin. Students studying in countries which did not report to the OECD are not included in this indicator.

The indicator covers residents in the country, regardless of citizenship and of employment or labour market status.

School expectancy (in years) under current conditions excludes all education for children younger than five years. It includes adult persons of all ages who are enrolled in tertiary education. School expectancy is calculated by adding the net enrolment rates by single year of age.

In the indicator, the column “OECD mean” indicates the number of Eurydice member countries/areas, in which limitation on admission to tertiary education is adopted, out of the total number of countries/areas whose data is available. For example, in the column “Limitation at

public expenditure on all services, excluding education, includes expenditure on financing (e.g. interest payments) that are not included in public expenditure on

“tuition fees” refers to payments related to registration itself or the certified cost of each student. By “tuition fees” is meant contributions to the cost of tertiary education supported by individual tertiary education institutions. These fees also include certification fees. Payments for entrance examinations are excluded. In this column the column “OECD mean” indicates the number of Eurydice member countries/areas, in which registration and tuition fees are adopted, out of 35 countries/areas whose data is available. For example, in the column “Membership in student organisations”, 5/35 indicates that membership fees are adopted in 5 out of 35 countries/areas.

“Teaching staff” refers to professional personnel directly involved in teaching students. “Higher Education” includes all universities, colleges of technology and other institutions of post-secondary education, whatever their source of finance or legal status. It also includes all research institutes, experimental stations and clinics operating under the direct control of or administered by or associated with higher education institutions. For detail, see OECD (2002), *Frascati Manual 2002: Proposed Standard for Surveys on Research and Experimental Development*.

“Triadic patent” means patents filed all together to the European Patent Office (EPO), the United States Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO) and the Japanese Patent Office (JPO). The indicator shows each country’s share in total triadic patents filed by OECD member countries. Reference year is when the priority patent is filed. Data is estimated by the OECD Secretariat and provisional. Because a few countries share large proportion of triadic patents, other countries have small share.

Additional notes:

For discrepant data, averages have not been calculated individually.
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NETHERLANDS

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In this context, the OECD launched a major review of tertiary education with the participation of 24 nations. The principal objective of the review is to assist countries in understanding how the organisation, management and delivery of tertiary education can help them achieve their economic and social goals. The Netherlands is one of 14 countries which opted to host a Country Review, in which a team of external reviewers carried out an in-depth analysis of tertiary education policies. This report includes:

- an overview of the Netherlands' tertiary education system;
- an account of trends and developments in tertiary education in the Netherlands;
- an analysis of the strengths and challenges in tertiary education in the Netherlands; and
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